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ABSTRACT

A study was conducted preliminary to establishing a linkage between the needs of business and government for personnel qualified in foreign languages on the one hand, and the need for career opportunities for college students studying foreign languages on the other. This volume reports on the accomplishments of each phase of the study. The initial phase consisted of a survey of the literature, to be embodied in an annotated bibliography. The government and business sectors were then queried extensively on their needs for foreign-language-trained personnel. Finally, the results of this needs assessment coalesced into models for curriculum and material development. The project is seen as paving the way for a working relationship among the business, government, and academic sectors, whose mutual lack of communication has in the past resulted in wasted talent and training on the one hand, and imperfectly met personnel needs on the other. (JB)

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LANGUAGES FOR THE WORLD OF WORK

Final Report

Project R-49-99
Languages for the World of Work

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Sponsored by the Department of Education
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June 1976

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
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To all of the above, we express our gratitude and appreciation.

Olympus Research Corporation

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SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

During 1974-75, Olympus Research Corporation (ORC) engaged in a study titled "Languages for the World of Work." This project, sponsored by the state of Wyoming as a directly eligible grantee, was performed by ORC under the subcontract funded by the Division of Manpower Development and Training of the U.S. Office of Education. As originally conceived, the project had four phases:

I A search of the literature

II An analysis of employment opportunities involving language skills and another training -- occupational, professional, or technical -- within the government sector and throughout business and industry

III Development of a model for proposed curricula, which would demonstrate the kinds of training techniques that could be employed for teaching foreign languages where such training was specifically focused as adjunct skills training for another profession or occupation

IV The dissemination of results

The fourth phase, the dissemination of results, was not covered in the funding of the initial contract. Instead, it was originally intended as a second-year effort. In the meantime, with the passage of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), the ability to continue to fund this type of project by the Manpower Development and Training Office ceased. Efforts will continue to seek means to carry out the dissemination.

SUMMARY

Phase I -- The Literature Survey

First, an annotated bibliography of materials, related to language training directed to the world of work (rather than toward social communication, research usage, or literature), has been compiled, and at present plans are being made to enter it into the ERIC system through ERIC for Languages and Linguistics, Arlington, Virginia. This fully annotated bibliography contains other valuable information in addition to the 337 annotated entries. It documents the manner in which the literature search was conducted and also lists many non-annotated resources where language professionals may obtain lists of prospective companies for employment and other basic information for performing curriculum development in foreign language directed toward careers. Altogether this document is more than five hundred pages in length, and provision is pending for its continuous updating, either under the auspices of ERIC or by some other source of support.

Next, literature was analyzed for information relative to the overall project. One of the most important findings of the literature survey was that increased attention during the past year has been given to what is often expressed as career-based foreign language education, or what we refer to as "languages for the world of work." In many schools the emerging concept of career education in general is acting as a catalyst within the language profession. In other cases the inability of the language departments, particularly at the college and university levels, to place their graduates in academic positions has brought a realization that language departments must expand the offerings of their language training to include specific training for the use of languages as an adjunct skill to another professional or technical training. This would be in addition to the traditional departmental offerings of conversational language, grammar and structure, literature and linguistics.

When responses from the business and industry community were analyzed, we found a wide range of answers -- from extremely disinterested to highly concerned. Those who were poorly enlightened on the subject of languages for the world of work showed little or no curiosity or enthusiasm; but those who were knowledgeable about the concept unquestionably supported it, perceiving that foreign language skills held by their employees immensely benefit their firms. Let us reiterate that these are the "practitioners." On the other hand, the theorists -- international business management professors and consultants -- tended to deplore the current reluctance of U.S. companies to embrace the concept of cross-training in languages and management (based on findings of the literature survey).

E. J. Kolde and Armind Phatak have each developed similar models of ideal organizational development away from ethnocentrism toward geocentrism (Phatak's term) or cosmopolitan corporate culture (after Kolde). Ethnocentrism includes the notion of English as the business world's lingua franca and a resistance to any language other than English and failure to recognize non-American cultural traditions. On the other hand geocentrism, or cosmopolitan corporate culture, includes full recognition of the benefits of training in language and cultural awareness. Such companies truly become "multinational" and thus avoid negative political, racial, or ethnic identifications and, instead, flexibly adapt to a variety of host-country needs and conditions.

These of course are some theoretical concepts which, along with hard data, need to be disseminated, with the long-range objective in mind that language and cultural training might enhance or promote increased international understanding and diminish the "ugly American" concept of an overseas firm.

Phase II-a -- The Federal Government Survey

During the study the entire structure of federal government was analyzed and cases were studied thoroughly to determine which departments, divisions, bureaus, offices, and organizations of government, at home and abroad, employ persons to perform jobs where language skills are either unequivocally necessary or are highly desirable. Except for the Defense Department and the Central Intelligence Agency where such information is classified, we have been able to document the current number of jobs that are available in which language skills are needed (approximately 18,600). In addition, many jobs exist for which employability is enhanced by a candidate's knowledge of foreign languages, although it may not be a prerequisite for employment. An unexpected finding was that far more jobs exist in the government in not so obvious departments than was presumed at the beginning of the study. For example, in addition to the foreign service officers employed by the State Department (where language skills are obviously a necessity), it was found that many bureaus and offices of the Departments of Agriculture, of Commerce, and of the Interior also had substantial language needs among their various personnel. The methods of training these individuals, of rating their language skills, and of orienting them to their assignments through bicultural awareness and other training procedures have been documented.

A major finding of this aspect of the study is that, on the whole, the government is far more efficient in the training of its personnel in foreign languages than are commercial language schools, public schools, junior and senior colleges, and universities. Government training is also more efficient, generally, than the in-house training done by business and industry. This finding alone, and the methods and systems of evaluation that are used to constantly upgrade a person's language skills, is worthy of wide dissemination to business, industry, and the public school and university sectors.

For example, the federal government, according to an official GAO report in 1971, spent more than $60 million on language training. Ironically, most of the personnel who were trained had had previous language training experience in the public schools or universities. Yet this training was insufficient to prepare them to perform their tasks. It was not only insufficient but, for the most part, the prior training had been directed toward social intercourse or literature which was largely irrelevant as a type of training that would help these individuals obtain technical vocabularies and the dependent language skills that would permit more immediate and effective performance of the particular jobs needed by the government.

There is a wide variety of professional careers and specialities which require language proficiency for government services overseas. Apparently, there is a wide latitude in possible job choices with a large variety of combinations of career traini[illegible] language. But it is evident that a person must have a high de[illegible] of technical or professional proficiency to qualify for these jobs, in addition to language skills. It is encouraging to note that there are jobs available which are challenging and rewarding. Several government agencies have now added incentive programs designed to compensate personnel for in-service achievements, foreign language learnings, and maintenance.

It cannot be overemphasized that if the colleges expect their foreign language graduates to meet the qualifications for government service, considerably more emphasis must be placed on oral and aural proficiency. It is also evident that the present system of evaluation in college foreign language courses is not conducive to the establishment of uniform standards of training. Achievement must be reported in terms of competency to perform tasks, rather than meaningless letter grades for a specific number of hours.

It was reported by the Foreign Service Institute, which trains for the State Department (and also on an interdepartmental agreement basis for many other departments of the government), that many college graduates with majors in languages do not meet even the minimal rating level for proficiency in the language in which they have majored. This means, of course, that much of the $60 million spent in 1971, and additional amounts spent since, have been expended toward what might be termed "remedial" rather than initial training. The obvious question is: Could some of that money be saved eventually if our schools and colleges did a better job of teaching languages? The answer would seem to be "yes," if students who were preparing for government service careers had available to them a specialized curriculum that would coordinate their preparation for government service with a specific type of language training so that foreign language skills would truly be an integral part of their overall job qualifications.

Phase II-b -- Survey of Business and Industry

More than six thousand firms were surveyed, with a respondent ratio of approximately 23 percent; and more than sixty thousand jobs where language was required were reported by these companies. One can reasonably assume that among the nonrespondents, and among other companies which were not surveyed, there would be an additional large number of jobs for which language training is essential or desirable.

The current tendency is to send the best qualified personnel as representatives to the foreign subsidiary. Corporate management usually insists that its employees have excellent technical training and that they prove themselves in domestic operations before management will approve them for such an assignment. This is partially due to the high cost of placing a manager and family in the field and also because of the high number who are not able to complete this assignment. While a knowledge of the host country's language is not a requirement for hiring or assigning a person to overseas duty, in most companies it is recognized as an extremely significant factor in adaptation after the employee arrives overseas.

Despite stringent requirements for overseas assignment, there are many opportunities for those who are serious and determined to qualify. This usually means that a person must be committed to a career overseas rather than merely having a desire to travel. In addition to technical training in their field, these people must be prepared to adapt to many so-called "hardships" encountered by families who live overseas.

The LWOW study gives evidence of an increasing need for foreign language skills in the field of business. Foreign language students can be counseled in high school and college that there are many opportunities to use a second or a third language as an adjunct skill in the world of work in international business.

At the same time, the study also reveals considerable evidence that U.S.-based companies have not adopted any kind of uniform policy to provide adequately for their foreign language needs overseas. The majority of U.S. companies are still attempting to satisfy their foreign language requirements by hiring English-speaking nationals abroad, or by working through a translator or an international agent, or they are trying to get by with English on the theory that English is the lingua franca of the business world. Evidently, until competition forces a change in policy, many American companies will be represented by personnel abroad who expect others to do business in English.

The day may soon come when Americans will have to become more proficient salespeople in order to meet competition from other nations with highly developed technological skills, whose representatives deal in the vernacular of their clients. A few companies or individuals have prepared themselves to deal in the language of the host nation because of their desire to "be a good partner" or to satisfy their own need to adapt and find fulfillment in their work, or to avoid the anomie and anxiety of culture shock. Too many others will continue to deal only in English and leave themselves open to the accusation of being the typical monolingual "ugly American" with a superiority complex. Many people in the business world do speak English -- hence the "we can get by with English alone" attitude.

Many of those who speak English in business would rather not do so for a variety of reasons, not the least of which is a persisting resentment of the former economic domination of English-speaking people. Aside from the day-to-day functional needs which may require use of the local language, there is the effective domain of good human relations, which begins with making the effort to learn another person's language and accepting that person's way of life. An itinerant sales representative or a short-term visitor may not be expected to learn the local language, but when the overseas American takes up residence abroad, his or her acceptance in the community demands it.

At present, a relative few of the large multinational corporations take language training into account in planning, budgeting, recruiting language talent, training personnel in house, or offering language training allowances to overseas employees. Smaller companies, especially those whose chief function abroad is marketing, need second and third language competency more than the larger corporations because they do not have large subsidiary offices staffed by foreign nationals.

Some small companies are represented abroad by one of the many export management companies (EMC) who have on their staffs experienced personnel in foreign trade regulations. Generally speaking, these companies are able to meet the language demands of their marketing operations abroad. They are, for the most part, small companies and do not offer the great opportunities to the person who has studied a second language in high school or college.

The government, including the military, has a long history of systematic performance rating for its professional and classified personnel. When language becomes a factor in a person's job, it too is systematically rated and updated. While industrial supervision often includes job rating and evaluation, this study uncovered virtually no instance of a company which formally rated the language skills of its personnel, even where the language was crucial to job performance.

As in the case of the government, business and industry are more than a little dissatisfied with the product of our schools and universities and the language training afforded the students. However, business and industry as a whole are not as acutely aware of the need for intensive training; nor do they devote their resources or similar attention to this problem. There is considerable evidence in the literature and in the studies that have been performed by international business experts that an indifferent attitude toward languages and culture is detrimental to the overall operating potential of American businesses abroad and for firms in the United States doing foreign business. This study evoked commentaries, case studies, and data from a number of what we might consider to be highly enlightened company officials who reported unusual success in profits, in public relations, and in total operations, which they attributed to their attention to language and cultural training.

A few positive comments appear below and are taken from the survey of business and industry representing geocentric-oriented companies. The comments are typical of the type of attitude seen by us and by international business experts as being that which is needed.

From a major well-known firm's personnel manager: "I will offer . . . a purely personal view. . . . American managers involved in overseas activities should no longer blithely assume that we can force our language on other nationals, that language learning is a one-way street -- toward English. We must learn the other fellow's language to show true appreciation to him, to his culture, and to the extra effort he applied to learn English."

From an Ohio firm, a response by the vice president for international operations: "There is a rapidly increasing need for foreign language skills in our organization and every organization. However, we find there is great difficulty in hiring people in the Midwest where little contact with foreigners or foreign-speaking people is obtainable. The schools, likewise, are not set up properly to teach language skills. Therefore, in general we hire third country nationals in the country where we are operating or in the regions where they are responsible. Accordingly, all of our top management positions outside the United States -- such as technical directors -- are held by foreigners. Most of our American technicians, we find, are not capable of adding language skills at the present time, so we have to send them out and then use local interpreters. There is definite need in the United States, especially in the Middle West, to develop more and more interest in language schools and training as our business becomes more and more international."

As a result of our questionnaire, the manager of literature and translation services of what is probably the best known U.S. chemical company inserted an announcement and commentary in the American Translator's Association Newsletter, which he edits. Under "From the Editor's Desk" the following appears in regard to the ORC study:

> . . . I am afraid, though, that many of the business people who reply will reflect the general apathy toward language studies. Overseas jobs in industry are seldom filled by people who are fluent in the overseas language or interested in foreign culture . . . .

Dozens of highly positive "success stories" were received in the comments attributing company profits to its language and cultural training policy. However, the surprisingly large number of nonresponses, partial responses, or responses denying need for language demonstrates the apathy described above.

Nevertheless, one of the most obvious conclusions to be made from the LWOW study is that there is a language training need which is not being met by the schools and colleges. The private language schools are teaching a clientele for overseas service which is largely outside the age and scope of formal training offered by public schools and universities. There is little opportunity, except on a contract basis, for the colleges to meet these needs at the time the overseas assignment is made. Community colleges have a better opportunity to satisfy the language training needs by the community in domestic services, such as law enforcement, social work, employment placement, and other jobs which require meeting the public who may be of limited or non-English-speaking ability.

The language curriculum now offered at the university level does not prepare students with a uniform high degree of proficiency sufficient to qualify them for the jobs available. Since the curriculum is oriented toward literature study, there is also a need for an alternative track which will give a longer sequence of practical training in languages for the world of work. Although some professors may consider it demeaning or dehumanizing to teach language for career needs in government, business, and industry, it should be pointed out that foreign language teachers have a great opportunity to train those who will represent their companies and the United States abroad. What could be more humanizing than helping a person communicate more completely with another? Complete communication, of course, involves cultural awareness as well as language training.

Promotion of the concept of the alliance of the world of work and languages is therefore not limited to schools and universities but includes fostering change of traditional postures among business and industrial firms. At the same time, there is ample evidence that support from business and management theorists and practitioners is available.

To sum up the quantifiable data represented by the study of business and industry -- there was a survey taken of three basic groups: (1) our own constructed major file of business and industrial firms, (2) the *Fortune* 500 companies (which represent the five hundred largest U.S. corporations, most of whom have international divisions), and (3) export management companies listed in the current U.S. Department of Commerce directory.

The potential companies from the master file numbered 5,640, with a 22.36 percent survey return. The *Fortune* 500 included some subsidiaries and unduplicated subdivisions which gave an actual number of 562 companies. Since the original goal was to survey all five hundred of the *Fortune* 500 companies either by written survey or by oral interview, we obtained an unsual 112.4 percent return for this group. A total of 669 companies are listed in the current EMC directory; replies were received from 88 percent of these.

While the replies do not necessarily represent a comprehensive listing of jobs available, the companies that reported indicated language-needed or language-desirable positions totaling 60,678 from the main survey of business and industry; 31,756 for the *Fortune* 500 companies; and 673 for the export management companies. Reported proficiency levels requiring "native fluency" total more than the total U.S. employees currently employed, which gives evidence that where "native fluency" is required, it is being met mostly by the hiring of foreign nationals. Figures are cited in the report breaking down the numbers of personnel needed in various proficiency levels of the following categories: native fluency, limited conversational ability, ability to write, ability to read and understand, ability to translate, and miscellaneous needs. Business and industry in general and the Fortune 500 companies require vast numbers of language-skilled personnel, while the EMCs require only limited numbers for their very specialized and limited work.

The ability to use another language in a skill or profession has little or no effect on salary per se, although descriptive commentary indicates that promotions, advancements, and so on make it so that the ability to use a second (or third or more) language may have an indirect effect in increasing earnings for the employee. In general, 64 percent of the businesses and industries said language ability had less effect on salary than other factors; 30 percent indicated that it had about an equal effect; and approximately 6 percent indicated it had more effect on salary increases.

The ranking of languages by importance as perceived by the respondents showed Spanish, French, and German, in that order, to be the most important, although the Fortune 500 group ranked Portuguese and Italian ahead of German. After Spanish, French, German, Portuguese, and Italian came Japanese, Arabic, Russian, Chinese, Indonesian, and miscellaneous other languages.

With regard to training methods used to meet language needs -- the preferred approach is to hire native speakers. Approximately half of the business and industry master file companies and half of the Fortune 500 companies report that they hire persons with prior formal training. In both cases about 17 percent also conduct in-house training. About 47 percent of the general business and industry sector use commercial language schools. Among the Fortune 500 firms, this figure rises to over 62 percent. By contrast, the EMCs rely mainly on hiring native speakers, although they also take formally trained persons. Only 4.72 percent of the EMCs engage in in-house training, and only 5.66 percent use commercial language schools for their personnel.

All three groups perceived the order of shortages of language-trained personnel by categories in the following order (from most critical to least critical): (1) managerial and administrative, (2) supervisory, (3) clerical and secretarial, and (4) skilled and semiskilled. The distribution of the degree as represented in the figures is again strikingly similar between general business and industry and the Fortune 500 companies, but differs for the EMCs. But this is frequently the case in the data, which imply the different nature and needs of EMCs.

The ranking of professional and technical fields which might best be combined to most advantage with language training to enhance employability was similar for all groups. Each group is cited in the report, but for purpose of summary the list, according to business and industry in general, ranked from highest preference to lowest preference in the following order:

(1) Business administration and management
(2) Marketing and sales
(3) Engineering
(4) Secretarial skills
(5) Finance
(6) International relations
(7) Accounting
(8) Economics
(9) Clerical skills
(10) Communications

(11) Law

(12) Public relations

(13) Advertising

(14) Data processing

(15) English language skills

(16) Others

(17) Civil engineering

(18) Journalism

(19) Area studies

(20) Statistics

(21) Psychology

(22) Library skills

(23) Cultural studies

(24) Public administration

(25) Sociology

(26) Political science

(27) Fine arts

The degree of preference which manifests itself rather strongly in the categories of business administration and management, marketing sales, and engineering is striking. Moderate demand is seen for secretarial skills, finance, international relations, and accounting, and then there is a rather sharp drop for the other fields. Almost of no significance are the areas of psychology, library skills, cultural studies, public administration, sociology, political science, and fine arts, which were checked (on the survey) by less than 5 percent of the respondents.

There are certain positions because of their extremely rigorous requirements which are not open to the typical American foreign language student who learns a second language in high school or college. Reference is made to such positions as a United Nations simultaneous translator or interpreter which requires native-like proficiency. However, there are many jobs in these fields which could be filled by native-born American bilinguals who have sufficient language skills and professional or technical training. Our minority populations are one resource that is largely untapped for developing or recruiting bilinguals. However, bilingualism is a separate characteristic from ethnicity. For example, a person of Hispanic background may be English dominant, Spanish dominant or a monolingual in Spanish or English. He or she may not necessarily qualify for a position which requires international bilingualism particularly if reading and writing skills are required at a high proficiency level.

Of increasing importance in the domestic job market are positions in law enforcement, social work, employment placement, medical services, and so on, which now require a language as an adjunct skill. The schools and colleges of the nation -- especially the community colleges -- have an excellent opportunity to fill this growing need. The need for speakers of French, German, Chinese, Italian, Polish, and other languages is of considerable moment, although the need for those who speak Spanish is at present much greater in the United States. Again, the minority populations are a source of needed personnel.

Phase III -- Curriculum Model Development

The LWOW study revealed the need for curriculum development based upon the following general conclusions:

(1) Domestically, one of the greater needs for language training in the world of work is in connection with certain minority groups who do not speak English well enough to qualify for jobs which would otherwise be available to them.

(2) There is also need for monolingual Americans to learn a second language in order to serve these citizens who do not speak English well enough to make their wants known.

(3) For overseas assignments, many Americans need a second language to carry out their daily duties.

(4) Many firms, located in the United States but engaged in international trade, need personnel with language skills who can communicate with customers abroad.

To satisfy the above needs, the researchers developed a model curriculum demonstration unit for each situation, integrating language study with cultural awareness and career objectives. For (1) above, ORC developed a unit in English on how to give a shampoo; for (2), a unit in Spanish on how to give an X-ray; and for (3) and (4), a unit in French for an American accountant visiting a subsidiary company in France. These units were written and demonstrated with students at Weber State College in Ogden, Utah. Innovative approaches included the following:

(1) The materials, intended for those who had elementary-level instruction in foreign language, were modular.

(2) The materials used a multimedia approach, including video-tape, audio cassette, overhead transparencies, slide presentations, a learner's workbook, and a basic textbook unit.

(3) Student achievement was evaluated in terms of task performance and competency. Students worked in pairs until they were ready to present the prepared material. They were given credit and were allowed to proceed to a subsequent unit only upon successful completion of the task.

Phase IV -- Dissemination

ORC files are bulging with requests from foreign language professionals at the elementary, secondary, and university levels that information from our study be disseminated so that they can use it. They also ask for assistance in developing an LWOW-based curriculum in various foreign languages, matched to the most relevant professional training and local available resources. These requests for information and assistance have been directed to us, even though the results of the ongoing study have had a rather limited circulation, appearing in such publications as the Accent on ACTFL (Bulletin of the American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages), the ADFL Bulletin (Association of Departments of Foreign Languages), and the Modern Language Journal. The results are also becoming known because of a limited number of papers read, or demonstrations given by, members of the ORC staff. We also have contact with and formal requests from the business community and government language trainers for dissemination of LWOW findings.

The fourth phase, however, was not covered in the funding of the initial contract. Instead, it was originally intended as a second-year effort! In the meantime, with the passage of CETA, the ability to continue to fund this type of project by the Manpower Development and Training Office ceased. Efforts will continue to seek means to carry out dissemination.

Basically, ORC has proposed three strategies of dissemination:

(1) Development of a film based upon its previous findings and apparent needs, promoting the concept of languages and the world of work

(2) A nationwide series of conferences (to be conducted by ORC) which provide instruction and information, as well as open dialogue and discussion to clarify and elicit feedback from participants

(3) Development of a "Languages for the World of Work" course of instruction, pilot testing of such a course, and dissemination to a wide variety of field test and demonstration sites

We at ORC believe that all three of these strategies have high impact potential, even though each method has certain limitations as well as obvious strengths. Ideally, and as funding can be obtained, the combination of all three strategies would appear to have the most powerful impact by reaching the largest number of language professionals and students, school and higher education administrators, and the government, business, and industry organizations where the employment possibilities exist.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, significance has been attached to the fact that 18,600 government positions were documented as language essential, and more than 60,000 positions in business and industry were identified. Government personnel data from prior years show that the number of language-designated positions has increased consistently since 1946, when the Foreign Service Institute was established. It seems to be a fairly safe assumption that the number of positions in international business and industry will not decline; rather, it will increase. No data are available on the number of domestic jobs that require language skills other than English, but it is known that this is also a growing area of need.

Type of Additional Research Needed

The figure of 78,600 positions in government, business, and industry presently identified is rather conservative in relation to actual present as well as projected needs. First, in addition to the 18,600 positions in government that are considered language essential, there are numerous positions (at least twice as many, according to the interviews ORC held) where a job seeker with language training and technical competence would have a decided advantage over nonlanguage-skilled applicants. This is also true of business and industry.

Moreover, ORC's figures from business and industry represent only slightly more than 22 percent of a sampling of approximately six thousand businesses. These businesses did not necessarily represent a comprehensive listing of all firms doing domestic or foreign business which are affected by language-skilled personnel. Thus, if the factors of (1) growing needs, (2) incomplete returns, and (3) businesses not surveyed are taken into consideration, the actual number of jobs is doubtless considerably higher than 78,600. This is a significant assumption since it provides the strongest possible rationale for increased attention to language and career-related training. Cross-trained individuals will find the job-market considerably more hospitable than the traditional language majors who are having difficulty (along with other humanities graduates) in finding a position.

That teachers are beginning to recognize this is apparent from the numerous inquiries ORC received and from the increased interest in this subject as evidenced in the topics of professional journals and in professional meetings. An inadvertent announcement in one of the journals to the effect that this study had produced a comprehensive list of jobs and job requirements in the various languages brought a deluge of inquiries seeking to obtain the list. Partly under the impetus of career education and partly under the realities of the job situation, such a tangible thing as a job list is a much sought-after item.

There are some serious methodological problems inherent in drawing a random sample and projecting from that the actual number of jobs, categorizing as to whether they are language-essential or language-desirable positions, then breaking them down by proficiency levels, separate languages, types of employers, and so forth. ORC cannot recommend that additional money be spent on a study attempting to document this scientifically because of the methodological problem of defining a universe and drawing a random sample. Furthermore, the data would be out of date too soon to be of much value.

Rather than a single study, a continuous monitoring of manpower requirements of business and industry and of the government -- with regard to language needs, training in other fields, and the precise degree of competencies required -- would enable educators to fashion specific programs to furnish actual manpower needs. Over time, resources could be built up to identify most if not all of the prospective employers and to maintain updated job information for graduates, as well as job applicant referrals for employers.

As more sophisticated reporting and evaluation methods are worked out, the capability of forecasting trends several years in advance would emerge.

Obtaining more precise descriptions of proficiency levels is needed both of language and technical and professional skills, based upon empirical observations of workers in the field. Using such information as the basis for writing training objectives would be a significant step toward developing an effective curriculum.

An excellent example of such a combination of language and other technical skills descriptions is beginning to show itself in the form of competency-based teacher certification requirements for bilingual education. Specific language capabilities and professional educational qualifications have been or are in the process of being adopted in a number of the states.

In addition to performance requirements, on-the-job observation is needed to document the parameters of vocabulary usage in specific work situations. Glossaries of basic vocabulary for various languages and technical fields could be compiled for use as teaching aids, for student usage, and for suggesting curricular content.

At the local level, needs analysis and resource identification is an important area of small-scale research. This will enable a school system, community college, or other institution to determine priorities, resources in the area, placement opportunities, and so on.

Research in business and government ought to address directly the question of how and why language training affects positive profits, good public relations, or other goals of a firm or agency. Results of such studies need to be circulated to businessmen and government officials, as well as to foreign language educators.

Fostering Change in the Teaching Profession

As one step in the promotion of languages for the world of work, we recommend that Phase IV of this study as it was originally conceived with the dissemination strategies already discussed, be carried out.

Continuation is encouraged of the efforts of organizations such as ACTFL, ADFL, MLA, and the specific language organizations (AATSP, AATG, AATF, and so forth) to keep alive the topic through seminars, discussions, and presentations at meetings, and in the selection and publication of appropriate articles.

Concepts of career education at the various educational levels, but particularly at the elementary and secondary school levels, ought to be promulgated among language teachers. In developing applications of career education in the foreign language classroom, teachers should be encouraged to use the findings of this study and information appearing in the literature as the basis for planning programs and curricular modifications.

Basically, priority should be given to the dissemination of this study's findings and other information to schoolteachers, foreign language supervisors, advisers, administrators and counselors, professors, heads of language and other academic departments, deans, and others. They should become aware of the needs for foreign language proficiency in government, business, and industry but also of the stipulation that concomitant expertise is necessary in a technical or professional field other than languages. The real message for the profession is that an alternative curricular track for languages is needed. Literature study is not to be discouraged or abandoned. The cultural component to language learning must be emphasized and strengthened, especially the type of awareness which allows Americans to be more effective in an interpersonal encounter overseas.

There is need not only for the dissemination of this final report but also for demonstration and conferences in the various regions of the United States. Responsible foreign language teaching representatives should be encouraged to:

(1) Support the elaboration and propagation of a national policy statement with respect to languages for the world of work

(2) Petition Congress to support the teaching and learning of foreign languages and their respective cultures as needed in the world of work

(3) Promote a longer sequence of language and culture education in the schools and colleges

(4) Promote the study of the less commonly taught languages, such as Arabic, Russian, Chinese, Japanese, Farsi and Indonesian, in addition to Spanish, French and German for practical career purposes

(5) Promote in the language departments of schools and colleges the establishment of evaluative criteria in terms of proficiency level ratings as now used by Foreign Service Institute and CIA

(6) Promote continued research and development of model and demonstration curricular units with the appropriate multi-media and cultural awareness components

Consideration should be given by those fostering change to the literature on change and innovation installation strategies. Language professionals as a whole are unaware that a body of literature exists in the social sciences pertaining to effecting change and selecting and carrying out appropriate intervention strategies.

A FINAL WORD

During the period of time covered by this research project, interest has continued to grow and the topic of languages for the world of work is now even more relevant than ever. More and more foreign language teachers are becoming aware of the necessity to prepare their students for the opportunities available to those who have a skill plus a language capability.

There has been no noticeable change in the foreign language teachers job market which continues to offer only limited opportunities for employment. The same is true for the other two main categories of positions open to those seeking employment with a foreign language as a primary tool; that is, as translators and interpreters.

On the other hand, the opportunities for those who possess a skill or career training, plus a foreign language, appear to be increasing as judged by the results of the "Languages for the World of Work" survey and by other indicators such as the Vocational Outlook Handbook and advertisements in leading newspapers across the nation for trained personnel with foreign language skills.

Judging from the number of requests being made for career education information and by the number of foreign language conferences and seminars addressing this issue, it seems obvious that foreign language teachers are now becoming more interested in languages for the world of work. They are asking for information regarding the nature of the jobs which require foreign language proficiency and are concerned about how to train their students for those positions. With this type of interest on the part of teachers, especially in the schools but also in the colleges and universities, there is cause for some optimism with respect to the possibility of wide acceptance of the data and implementation of the recommendations generated by the LWOW study.

INTRODUCTION

Writing to a U.S. Office of Education official in 1974, a frustrated student penned the following:

> Dear Sir:
>
> I am a college sophomore majoring in French. I read with great interest your article in Accent, on career education in foreign languages. . . . It seems that practically all language majors at our school hope to teach even though there are very few teaching positions available. The main reason they all want to teach is because they think that's almost the only career for a language major.
>
> I have written and called airlines and companies to see what careers are possible with them, but the only reply I get is that my letter is on file and they'll let me know when they have an opening. Government agencies have sent me very vague descriptions of jobs and applications. The armed forces recruiting offices told me they have great opportunities but can't give me details.
>
> I would be very grateful if you could send me some brochures on language careers. . . . I would appreciate any names, addresses or phone number of companies, government agencies, etc., who may be interested in hiring language majors or students with other majors who know a language.

This letter probably captures as realistically as it can be expressed what Languages for the World of Work is all about.

BACKGROUND AND CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE STUDY

The perceived need for an alternative or additional approach to the traditional curriculum in foreign language teaching gave motivation for carrying out this study, "Languages for the World of Work" (LWOW). It was conceived at a time when the foreign language teaching profession had fallen on hard times nationally. With enrollments diminishing and the foreign language requirements being eliminated at many universities, the number of available teaching positions was reaching an all-time low. "Languages for the World of Work" was to be a partial answer to the falling enrollments in foreign language classes of schools and colleges.

Preliminary research had revealed that there was a need for language proficiency as an adjunct skill for exciting and rewarding positions in the world of work. While we speak of language as a secondary skill or as an adjunct skill, we actually do not mean to place language in an inferior position to other technical skills. While on the one hand it may be correct to speak of language skills as adjunct to a set of professional, technical, managerial, or other skills, it may be that the nature of the overall work requires language skills to be an integral part of the totality of one's professional expertise.

While certain language-essential positions in government agencies are proscribed by legislative authority, many other government posts exist which also use language skills in less clearly defined but extremely important ways. In addition, the needs in business and industry had been only partially studied and the results of such studies were not widely circulated. There is no complete and accurate list of companies or agencies which used language proficiency in their operations domestically or overseas. Trade publications and books were found in which some lists were included, but they appeared to be highly commercialized, out of date, or unreliable. The unstable foreign and domestic economic situation of the past two years or so has greatly affected the validity of such information.

Of even greater significance was the almost complete lack of orientation and counseling materials. Very little was known about available jobs for those with language skills and even less about how to prepare students to qualify for them. This has been a severely neglected area in educational research in the United States as well as abroad.

Long-Range Implications of the Project

Foreign language teachers have a well-known desire to show administrators positive proof of job relevancy for foreign language courses. For this purpose ascertaining the number and nature of the jobs might have sufficed. There are, however, greater needs to be served by this study: clarification of the deeper educational issues, including the concept of languages as a secondary or adjunct tool, and more precisely the exact type of language proficiency required, together with the other career prerequisites for employment.

Language teachers are not alone in feeling the need for viable vocational outlets for their students. Others of the humanities and the liberal arts faculties are experiencing the same diminishing enrollments, the lack of jobs for graduates, and the "Ph.D. crisis." This need explains the national inclination toward career education wherein employability is a prime consideration. In recent years, the U.S. Office of Education has committed large amounts of funding and has expended great effort to diffuse the concepts of career education. As a result, career education has gained credibility and recognition in schools and universities. However, the incorporation of career education concepts into foreign language curricula and teaching practice is lagging behind efforts in many other disciplines.

The general curriculum at high school levels is usually not highly specialized. This is not necessarily to suggest that it should be as highly technically specialized as for instance a college-level, specialized language curriculum. But it would be refreshing to see foreign language courses at the elementary and secondary levels include examples of dialogs, drills, role-playing, and so forth which are occupationally oriented (career-education imbued) and which include a clear demonstration to the student that language skills might be not only useful for diplomatic and social intercourse and artistic, cultural appreciation, but also to gain a livelihood.

Curricula designed specifically to provide the appropriate type of language training required in government, business, and industry today are conspicuously lacking. Although impressive beginnings in career awareness have been made in some schools and colleges, language courses have not yet been designed with effective learning objectives in the appropriate language skills at the required levels for world of work involvement. Nor have they been integrated in proper cooperation and coordination with the other disciplines of the nonlanguage departments. Careful investigation of the needs for language in nonacademic areas should make a contribution to practical recommendations for curricular reform.

One of the ironies of our times becomes evident when private language schools report an unprecedented period of growth and expansion at the same time that enrollments are dropping off in the language classes of colleges and the public schools. The most obvious difference is in the age and financial situation of the two categories of students. Private language schools mostly cater to an older, more established student with a need for another language to fill an assignment in the world of work. Although a need for this type of training is apparent and private language schools may have created a specialized curriculum of the type needed, these schools with their commercial constraints are not in a position to share their materials with colleges and public schools. Therefore, a basic objective of this study was to explore various curricular offerings and provide demonstration units of an integrated language, cultural awareness, and career training model for public consumption.

The purpose of all this was not intended to justify supplanting the traditional language courses in literature or methodology now being offered in the majority of schools and colleges. Instead, a major goal of the LWOW study was to support the concept of an alternative track for training those language students who wish to take advantage of the current opportunities for language-oriented careers in the world of work. This means that not only must the alert attention and concern of language departments be mobilized but other academic departments as well must cooperate in order to achieve effective implementation of languages for the world of work.

Several secondary goals for this study were identified; prominent among them was a commitment to changing the sometimes expressed view of modern languages from that of a cultural frill to one of integrated preparation related to a specific job or occupational skill. As a corollary to the thrust for language as an adjunct skill, cultural awareness training is being more and more recognized as an essential factor in the total interpersonal communication.

Special consideration must also be given to the bilingual and bicultural skills possessed by those persons whose home language is other than English, with concern for the kinds and nature of the jobs available to them by reason of their innate language proficiency. For that reason it was deemed necessary to explore occupations from executive level to skilled workers which demand complementary bilingual as well as bicultural skills in the domestic manpower force as well as in the international marketplace of jobs.

Current Professional Interest in Languages for the World of Work

The national promotion of career language training has been supported during very recent years by a number of forward-looking people and institutions. Various state boards of education and the language departments of several schools have made significant contriubtions in the form of career awareness approaches. Credit is also due the personnel of the Division of Manpower Development and

Training of the Office of Education as it existed before the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) effected a transfer of much of its function to the Department of Labor. In national conferences, publications, and regional meetings, staff members of Manpower Development and Training supported the need for training to meet the demands for language proficiency as an adjunct skill. As evidence of this insight, that office funded the LWOW study and other projects designed to adapt foreign language teaching to the world of modern technology.

One need only refer to recent issues (1972-75) of the Bulletin of the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages (ADFL Bulletin) and publications of the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) to realize the extent to which these two national language organizations are supporting the concept of languages for the world of work. Even as this report goes to press much relevant information is evident in the literature which was not available during the course of the study.

During the study, a number of programs supportive of career-oriented foreign language instruction were examined, not as a formal aspect of the study, but as a naturally occurring consequence of the staff's curiosity and the human tendency of the researchers to drift toward other professional activity of a kindred interest. Some of these were programs known to be in existence; other were discovered while the study was in progress. All of these programs were led by language professionals who seemed to express remarkably similar viewpoints. Such consensus of opinion, shared also by this project's researchers, is summarized in general by the following statements:

(1) The concept of languages for the world of work is here to stay.

(2) Efforts so far are "fledgling," but supporters are avid and enthusiastic.

(3) The liberal arts "job crisis" will serve as catalyst and will accelerate career-oriented language training in schools and universities.

(4) Supporters of the idea of language instruction for careers feel that traditionalists resist this innovation as being inconsistent with the role that the humanities should maintain in the academic setting. It is necessary, therefore, to mount a major educational effort directed toward the language profession itself.

(5) Proponents of language for careers are cognizant of the value of literature and linguistic training. The cry for greater relevancy is not an attack on the humanities; rather, it is seen as a realistic response to the limited employability of language majors who are presently specialized in literature or linguistics.

(6) Curriculum adaptation is not the answer to needed instructional materials for world of work language teaching. Instead, a completely new approach is needed.

(7) Program adaptation by controlled articulation of the existing curriculum is unsatisfactory if it means merely the restructuring of student requirements round traditional courses creating "double majors" or offering regular language and regular nonlanguage courses to

constitute complementary major and minor combinations. Rather, efforts should be made toward integrative courses and overall programs which do not dichotomize so completely language and nonlanguage instruction.

(8) Bilingual education and career language training are seen to be related and highly compatible. Training of bilingual education teachers involves integrated training in language and in education, which is a prime example of languages for the world of work in action. Since students pursue learning in a variety of subjects in two languages, they naturally acquire more versatility and depth of vocabulary in bilingual education and career-oriented language training.

(9) English as a second language (ESL) directed toward occupational and professional training holds promise for upgrading employment of disadvantaged ethnic minorities and is also an excellent example of language training for the world of work.

(10) The existence of large concentrations of ethnic groups in the United States whose mother tongue is not English creates a domestic need for career-oriented language training (including ESL). The same condition furnishes a potentially "advantaged" supply of domestic and international workers. Most of these workers need direction and refinement in languages and also need to be trained professionally or technically. This situation, if properly exploited, may be used partially to counterbalance the

limited opportunity often faced by certain minorities by recognizing the advantages of culture and language among these groups typically labeled as "educationally disadvantaged."

(11) Documentation and wide dissemination of findings which clearly demonstrate that jobs are available now and will be available in the future are indispensable to further progress of the LWOW movement. This will tend to attract students to programs by assuring them of a promising future for job prospects and will justify the needs felt by language professionals to obtain administrative and public support.

The last item expresses the direct aim and intent of this study, i.e., to provide hard data related to jobs, identification of professional or technical fields of study most in demand, and identification of specific languages needed and degree of need.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

Using a technique borrowed from the Agency for International Development (AID), ORC designed the project as summarized in Figure 1. The explicitness of the figure is more effective than a lengthy narrative would be of the project's long-range goals, purposes, resources expended, tangible outcomes, intangible benefits to accrue to the profession as a result of the study, and indirect resources devoted to the project.

The project was conceived of as being in four phases. Phase I was to be a survey of the literature palpably represented by a product,

NARRATIVE SUMMARY	OBJECTIVELY VERIFIABLE INDICATORS	MEANS OF VERIFICATION	ASSUMPTIONS
LONG-RANGE GOAL TO WHICH THIS STUDY CONTRIBUTES: Increase the employability of language students trained in public and private educational institutions Decrease the need for an related expense of remedial or initial language training for employers in the world of work	MEASURES OF GOAL ACHIEVEMENT: Over time, increase number of students placed in government, business, and industry positions requiring language training without need for additional language training	Longitudinal study of placement of graduates	Not applicable
PROJECT PURPOSE: Provide data which will impact on language profession and educational community by influencing conventional additions to language programs and nonlanguage programs that will produce language-skilled professional and technical workers	CONDITIONS INDICATING PURPOSE HAS BEEN ACHIEVED: Data will be positively cited in professional literature Data will be recognized as a needs justification for world of work language training Data and information will be requested from the field for use as needs justification Data will be utilized in the field as a needs justification for setting up local programs	Survey the professional literature after report of study is released Analyze the content of articles pertaining to the study appearing in the professional literature Count letters and other requests for information and assistance; papers and presentations will be requested by professional associations and accepted by journals Follow up on requests to determine if data and information impacted on local changes	Conditions of need is apparent but not supported by research; results will support presupposed need Funds for dissemination will be made available outside the official circulation lists to whom final results are to be addressed under contract terms
TANGIBLE OUTPUTS: Produce language for the world of work annotated bibliography Search literature and obtain empirical data justifying or rejecting as a need language study directed toward world of work Develop curriculum models for language for the world of work instruction Disseminate results of each of the above activities	SCOPE AND MAGNITUDE NECESSARY TO ACHIEVE PURPOSE: Product: Annotated bibliography Product: Final report citing literature findings and results of in-field research Product: Written descriptions and examples with accompanying descriptive narrative of instructional units Distribution count and analysis of comprehensiveness of distribution of products	Existence of products and compilation of report on dissemination	Results of needs analysis at 3.1.2 will justify activity at 3.1.3 Funding for dissemination
TANGIBLE RESOURCE INPUTS: OPE: Staff and corporate capability; qualifies for subcontract DMTD: Funding State of Wyoming: Qualify for contract	LEVEL OF EFFORT, COSTS, AND SOURCES: Four professional man-years and related support for products at 3.2.3; 3.2.2; 3.2.3 from Division of Manpower Training and Development through the state of Wyoming	Contract and subcontract	Follow-up funds will be obtainable for dissemination
INTANGIBLE BENEFITS EXPECTED: Academic and other educational institutions will increase knowledge of and provide opportunities to influence acceptance of LWOW concept Employers will increase knowledge of problems and appreciation for LWOW in terms of its benefits to them Clarification of issue of English as lingua franca of world business and industry	APPROACH AND AVOIDANCE CONDITIONS: Interest shown in project; invitations to participate in conferences, consult, and share information with professionals Cooperation with survey; interest in results and follow-up Not applicable	Document requests for information Establishment of contacts through professional affiliation and ongoing correspondence Not applicable	Not applicable
INDIRECT RESOURCES: Moral support of professional associations and individual leaders in the professions, cooperation of government, business, and industry to supply vital data	TYPES AND RELATIVE STRENGTH: MLA, ACTFL, ADFL leadership; strong endorsement of influential academic, government, business, and industry individuals	Endorsement and interest in project progress reflected through correspondence, personal contact and support shown in professional journals of project progress	Effect of indirect resources will not be counterbalanced by the emergence of professional or business opposition

Figure 2.1. Logical Framework -- Project Design Summary

an annotated bibliography of materials related to languages and the world of work. This bibliography was to serve a threefold purpose; it was to be: (1) a resource to be disseminated for its general value to the profession, (2) a reference source for supporting or rejecting theoretical considerations about the design of the study itself, and (3) a reference for comparing other scholarly undertakings with the empirical research. The Phase I efforts are described in chapter 3 of this report. The annotated bibliography is not contained herein for it is too voluminous, but it is contemplated to be available to the profession through the ERIC system.

Phase II was a field survey of government, business, and industry to determine language needs and job potential. Chapter 4 reports the results of the survey for the government respondents, and chapter 5 reports the results for business and industry. Phase III called for the design of some curriculum models that would illustrate the type of instructional materials which would need to be developed for languages for the world of work. This aspect of the study is reported in chapter 6.

Initially, Phase IV was to be dissemination of the results of the other three phases. However, since this phase was not a part of the original contract with the state of Wyoming, and since funding by the Office of Education's Division of Manpower Development and Training has ceased, other means of funding for dissemination are under consideration at this time. (In the project design summary, one can see that the assumption was made that the dissemination portion of the project would be financially supported after the first three phases were completed.)

Another primary assumption of the study was that the job market for cross-trained language/professional-technical personnel would be sufficiently large and potentially stable or, in the future, sufficiently expandable enough that the employability of graduates of language-and-career-balanced programs would not be jeopardized. As one organizer of the study put it: "After all, why build up the concept of languages for the world of work if employability is as weak as it currently is with humanities graduates?"

The above assumption affected the design of the study more than is possibly realized unless it is further explained. Although the project is exploratory in nature, aspects of it were deliberately intended not as a needs analysis but as a needs justification. From the standpoint of research, both are legitimate methods of inquiry. However, they differ in terms of objectivity of the research: A needs analysis maintains a perspective of strict neutrality, while a needs justification is an attempt to document a need for something specific through empirical means or through persuasive argument that is based on the citation of sufficient evidence compiled by others.

The researchers who compiled this report make no secret of the fact that they are proponents of the languages for the world of work concept. It was conceived and funded with this premise. To declare that the study is a needs analysis under a presumption of neutrality would be less than honest. With the admitted vulnerability of bias, a needs justification approach can be defended with a professional commitment to accept all data at face value, including admission that the needs could not be said to be justified in the event that the data so indicated.

It should be added that the study is a needs justification only to the extent that there existed a major premise that jobs indeed existed for adequately cross-trained individuals. Otherwise, there would have been no reason to produce concurrently an annotated bibliography of materials which were mainly supportive of the concept of languages for the world of work. Nor would it have been sensible to plan the curriculum model development that constituted Phase III of the project.

In probing for further information, however, the researchers found no a priori opinions existing in the literature which contained corollary information such as that reported in detail in later chapters, including an assessment of which languages are in most demand in the world of work and what technical and professional training might be best combined with language to enhance employability. Certain other areas of primary interest include research questions such as:

(1) What is the general ratio of language-skilled to non-language-skilled employees according to present corporate practices?

(2) How are language needs differentiated in terms of numbers of persons requiring language as (a) a primary tool, (b) a secondary tool, (c) not required but useful?

(3) What levels of proficiency are needed where language skills are involved?

(4) What is the relative degree of need for foreign languages of top management, supervisory, clerical, skilled and semiskilled personnel?

(5) What are the commonly held attitudes and policies of companies and government agencies with regard to foreign language usage within their respective organizations?

(6) How do government agencies and business firms fulfill their language needs?

In formulating these questions, the researchers anticipated that no particular pattern of answers would occur.

Secondary questions which it was hoped would emerge from commentaries, from on-site observations, from case studies, and from the literature search included:

(1) Do government agencies and business and industrial firms have confidence in the language training results reflected by college and university graduates?

(2) What trends are anticipated in the future that might have an effect on languages for the world of work?

(3) What domestic opportunities for employment make languages for the world of work a viable concept?

(4) What resources are available within a community to support languages for the world of work?

(5) How can placement of graduates be made effective, assuming that adequately cross-trained graduates are produced by LWOW programs in schools, colleges, and universities?

(6) What impediments or constraints impact on the potential development of languages for the world of work as a concept and practice?

OMISSION OF CERTAIN GROUPS FROM THE STUDY

In the empirical data gathered, the researchers assumed that certain types of groups were not pertinent to the study. Their exclusion is not to be seen as an oversight on the part of the project officials but as a consensus that these groups would perhaps not be identified with a foreign language need to adequately fulfill the kinds of work they would do in the foreign labor market,

Unskilled Labor Force

For international or overseas appointments, the premise was that non-English languages would not be a significant factor in employment of the unskilled worker. Supervision of unskilled labor, where language skills other than English are involved, is of course relevant to the study. This does not mean that unskilled U.S. workers and English language instruction do not fit into the overall concept of languages for the world of work. Indeed, as previously discussed, a meaningful application of languages for the world of work would be the attempt to raise the employment level in the domestic work force of certain unskilled workers through such means as bilingual vocational training.

For example, this would provide increased opportunity for a monolingual domestic worker to learn a second language, through ESL programs related to job training or job upgrading or through ESL coordinated with a new skill or trade. And the ordinary unskilled laborer would be able to have upward job mobility because he or she would be able to understand and translate directives from supervisors and managers to subordinates.

Elitist Language or Occupational Skills

Also eliminated from the study are what are referred to as "elitist" categories of occupations. "Elitist," as used here, is intended to be a descriptive term rather than to convey a negative "snobbish" connotation, as will be seen from the explanation that follows. In these cases, language may be an enormous factor, but the level of language or the professional skill or combination of the two is, for the average candidate, realistically unattainable. This is a significant distinction, particularly in the counseling process regarding foreign languages and careers.

It is stressed that language may indeed be a dominant factor in the "elitist" categories of jobs or occupations; this is not in any way meant to downgrade the importance of developing high-level language skills. But acquisition of native-like facility in all phases of oral language development -- that is, pronunciation, diction, accent, idiomatic usage, and so on -- is extremely difficult to acquire without extensive foreign residence, usually in the early-age years. Those who are capable of acquiring it at the highest level at a later age must be unusually bright or at least possess uncommon aptitude in language. Even those who are intellectually bright enough or sufficiently apt may not be able to produce vocally the correct pronunciation and accent to handle the language with complete freedom and facility or to render their speech in such a way as to pass for a native.

Perhaps the point can best be illustrated by recalling instances in which aspiring foreign language majors imagine themselves becoming simultaneous translators at the United Nations, or pursuing a career in diplomatic interpretation or other instantaneous translations. The extremely demanding standards which are necessary to obtain jobs of this kind should be recognized by counselors and foreign language teachers and communicated frankly to the students. Encouragement should be given to an individual only if he or she truly has the exceptional background or if certain other factors of extreme capability are obvious which would lead him or her realistically to attain such a goal. Too often young people not only aspire to mastering a single foreign language but hope to become fluent in a variety of languages with native-like facility. The innate capacities required or acquired by an uncommon foreign residential experience in childhood which may lead to complete bilingualism and the extreme unlikelihood of obtaining it in any other way, should be carefully impressed upon students.

One of the major theses of this study is of course that there is an abundance of opportunities to mix a language skill with other professional or technical skills in a combination where both the language and technical skill of the profession may be realistically acquired by a wide range of personal aptitudes ranging from below to above average.

Always open for the individual should be the opportunity to learn new languages, to expand vocabulary, and to improve pronunciation and idiomatic usage, but there are certain jobs where the requirements are of such a nature that they require an "elitist." This is not a category that is set up arbitrarily or by prejudicial exclusion of individuals. It is simply a fact of life in some occupations.

Dr. Roger Shields,[1] Assistant Undersecretary of Defense, made an interesting observation in this regard. He stated that instantaneous translation in diplomatic transactions even at best, with highly competent interpreters, posed a large problem. According to him, "Occasionally the nuances and the main idea are distorted by simultaneous translation." Dr. Shields, a competent speaker of French, spoke from the perspective of one experienced in negotiating sensitive matters such as weaponry information exchange or sales to foreign powers, as well as many other matters. Perhaps his most significant assignment was the implementation of the POW exchange with Hanoi in 1973, in reference to which he conceded the crucial nature of language skills.

Another example almost as rigorous as that of the UN-type translator is the international broadcaster who is heard in other lands. Native facility, and nothing less, is the standard that is demanded and needed. In addition, uncommon attributes of voice quality and control, personal appearance, and personality are required. It would be fallacious to suggest that the standards be lowered to open the job market to less qualified individuals. Radio and television communication at best is difficult and, when the target population is a foreign audience, only native-like precision in oral language can suffice.

Related examples occur in the field of the arts. For example, international performers are often bilingual or multilingual. But here the standard is not so concerned with the language. Highly successful international musicians and painters, even actors, vary in their degree of ability to use their non-native languages, but the professional skill in music, art, acting, and so forth is of crucial importance and must be exceptional. The musician, for example, aspiring to become internationally renowned, should be encouraged to acquire languages other than English, not only for the freedom of communication that it will give, but also for the increased insights and abilities to use and interpret music more freely. Such a person, however, should be disabused of the notion that his or her attainments in a foreign language, regardless of how extremely successful they may be, can substitute for any degree of mediocrity in a major profession (music, art, acting), to which language merely serves as an adjunct.

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[1] Interview with ORC researchers, Washington, D.C., February 24, 1975.

Before we leave this discussion of the "elitist" occupations and languages, it would be well to treat the subject of native foreign language speakers within the United States, more particularly, those who are native-born Americans who speak a language other than English as the mother tongue. Dialect and regionalisms persist within the United States. There is sometimes a polemical question about whether this constitutes degeneracy of the language or merely transformation. Some linguists and cultural anthropologists would argue that it is a mere transformation of the language, and whatever dialect or other deviations that occur from standard pronunciation and grammar are to be accepted fully. This view, unfortunately, may cause some American-born native speakers of a non-English language to aspire unrealistically to the so-called elitist positions already discussed. It is probably true that for some positions where "native standard" requirements exist, there are many persons of second or third generation or more in the United States who are capable and able to fill these posts. However, their accent, pronunciation, grammar, depth of vocabulary, and so on may not be of the standard required to fill international positions. They should realize that in such cases they are no more qualified to fill the positions than many native English speakers with second language acquired skills. Development and training might overcome deficiencies for native bilingual Americans to qualify them for overseas jobs.

This can be a touchy subject to some ethnic groups, but in the real world of work the standards do exist and are enforced. This is not to say that all native speakers who have been in the United States for one or two or more generations are linguistically inferior, but it is often the case that they are objectively judged in certain situations to be inferior speakers of a language and hence are not qualified to fulfill certain positions. More common of course are deficiencies in the written language, where their lack of qualifications are far more apparent. With reference to written communication, even foreign-born natives who are otherwise acceptable with their oral language facility have not always had adequate educational opportunity to develop skills in the written language to qualify for many positions.

There are, however, domestic fields open that are not available to non-English speakers, to native speakers such as chicanos, Cubans, Puerto Ricans, Chinese Americans, American Indians, and so forth. For example, many positions in bilingual education, local radio and TV broadcasting, and so on are virtually required to be filled by native speakers of that language. At least in many instances such persons are the only individuals in a given geographic area who are qualified and able to fulfill the job qualifications as they are described by the various employers.

DEFINITION OF TERMS USED IN THE STUDY

Various terms used in this report should be explained at the outset. Because acronyms do not suffice, and sometimes are bewildering to the reader, the shortened form of long and perhaps tedious phrases have been shortened for the reader.

"Language" or "Languages"

The term "language" or "languages" in this study usually refers to a language or languages other than English. Again, it is emphasized that English language instruction may be an important component of an LWOW program, but the empirical data cited here are based on international needs and domestic application of non-English languages. To say "language other than English" each time is burdensome, hence the portion "other than English" is to be understood in the context of citing the empirical data or referring to international needs of government, business, and industry, and in most cases when referring to domestic applications.

The term "second language" would be misleading in portions of this study because for many persons who are transferred to various countries during the course of a business or government career, there are requirements to acquire a third, fourth, or more, language. Also the term "second language" for many persons in the United States would necessarily mean English, since their native tongue may be Spanish, Navajo, Japanese, Greek, or something else. Likewise, the term "foreign language" might include English in the same way the term "second language" might mean English for minorities in the United States.

Bilingualism and Proficiency Ratings

The term "bilingual" is another that may be misleading. It is often used in job advertisements simply to describe a person capable of communicating in two languages. In a more technical context the label of "bilingual" is reserved for persons who are highly competent in two languages. Implied is the idea that not only is there dual competence but that oral and aural performance in either language is of such a level as to be indistinguishable from that of a native speaker of that language. Each company or personnel manager, or whoever writes job descriptions, has something specific in mind when he or she employs the term "bilingual."

But the wide variety of interpretations that are applied make the term meaningless unless it is accompanied by a more precise description of capabilities that are expected under a given interpretation of "bilingual." Not always clear, for example, is whether the term "bilingual" is meant to encompass only oral and aural skills or includes also skills that deal with the written language. Interrelated to a person's bilingualism is the degree of cultural sensitivity, awareness, and appropriate response which some have labeled as "biculturalism" but others consider to be an inherent part of being bilingual.

In our definition for this study, a bilingual person is relatively equally competent in two languages, and his or her oral, aural, and cultural response in both languages is indistinguishable from that of a typical native speaker of either language. Degree of reading-writing proficiency has been left out of the definition of bilingualism, but it is assumed that it should be specified in any job context, apart from oral bilingualism and biculturalism.

Woodford (1974, pp. 397-433) discusses the problem of defining bilingualism by juxtaposing the skill profiles of bilinguals in language "A" and language "B," broken down into four components; namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. He argues that, theoretically, a bilingual's profile of ability in each of the four skills would or should be identical for languages A and B.

Woodford points out that in practice it would be a rare occurrence to find an individual completely, as he calls it, "equilingual" on all four dimensions. For this reason, it is argued in this study that equal performance in reading and writing of a language cannot be made (practically speaking) part of the operational definition describing a bilingual person. Even considering only a single language, a person's skills at listening, speaking, reading, and writing would vary considerably. All sorts of combinations occur among people who are considered bilingual. For example, high reading and writing ability in language A and low reading and writing ability in language B may be the profile for some, while others would exhibit altogether different and varied tendencies in their individual profiles.

Woodford also concedes that the entire dimension of cultural sensitivity is related closely to bilingualism, but he considers it as a separate aspect, not showing it as a component of the language A/language B comparative profiles. The LWOW study tends to view that aspect as an integral part of true bilingualism, even if it is a separate dimension apart from linguistic considerations.

For this study, if we recognize that the general term "bilingual" is often ambiguous and imprecise, it is apparent that this definition should be considered as based primarily on the premise that the definition must be relevant, above any other considerations, to the world of work concept. Therefore, a formulation of a working definition is attempted herein which considers realistically that competence in two languages must be "relatively equal" rather than precisely "equilingual," according to Woodford's idea. The three indispensable elements in which there must be demonstrated a "relatively equal" degree of competence in both languages are: (1) oral performance, (2) aural performance, and (3) cultural response.

"Relatively equal" oral language competence can and does occur, considering broadly the three dimensions that have been identified. This would not be so, however, if the writing and reading skills were also included. It was specifically considered that to be bilingual in the world of work, a relatively equal skill in dealing with the written language is not necessarily an integral part of the requirements of bilingualism because they are so dependent upon formalized training and education. There are typically many persons who can be considered bilingual (at the levels of hearing, speaking, and culture inclusive) who would be excluded (not considered as bilinguals) when the written language is concerned because there is a far greater tendency in the writing and reading skills for one of the languages to be dominant. Formal educational opportunity makes this so. Oral and aural language, on the other hand, is far less affected by the degree of formal training.

It will be noticed that here the distinction is basically drawn on the premise that bilingualism occurs innately as a result of a person's unique experience in two cultures and in two linguistic worlds, rather than in the somewhat artificial world of an educational setting. Persons who study the language exclusively in the classroom or under formal tutelage would find it, practically speaking, impossible to become a bilingual. It is the living, the experiencing, in the real world, presumably at a crucial age or for a critical length of time, complete immersion in the culture, the street language, the language of the home and society in general, that creates bilingualism, or at least fosters it. The exact dosage of exposure, the critical age of exposure, and the like are impossible to prescribe because they vary immensely. Bilingualism may not necessarily result for two persons given the same exposure at the same time in the same environment for the same length of time.

However, generally speaking, oral, aural, and cultural bilinguals, of the type conceived of in this study, have had at an early age the general kind of immersion herein described. The formal educational process has had little to do with shaping the oral, aural, and cultural skills other than to provide a rich environment for practicing these skills. For this environment there are apparently other substitutes, as proved by the existence of unschooled and illiterate bilinguals. Under this study's concept of bilingualism, a person may obviously be considered to be bilingual even though he or she may be virtually illiterate in one or even both of the two languages in question. While there is a need for greater precision in usage for the term "bilingual," the job market situation seems to be more consistent with this concept than if the graphic skills were included, or bilingualism were defined otherwise.

Persons should not maintain nonrealistic aspirations but rather should be saved from disappointment if they are applicants for bilingual jobs and they are not truly bilingual. But those who write job descriptions should be obliged to justify distinguishing between jobs that are open to those who have merely acquired a second (or third or more) language, and to those who are actually bilingual. In the spirit of nondiscrimination, it is just as essential to do this as it is to consider fairly other factors of qualification in the job. Where the level of language is related to job performance at the non-native level (i.e., bilingualism not required), then the level that is acceptable should be described in performance terms. This is not to downgrade the importance of the bilingual in the world of work. Certainly jobs exist and standards may realistically and justifiably be imposed that require full bilingualism, but less capable speakers of a non-English language should not be excluded from a job where performance at a lower level is fully acceptable.

RATING OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

The Foreign Service Institute of the U.S. State Department has come a long way toward describing job performance in languages in its rating system.[2] There is a distinction made between the written language and the spoken language, as evidenced by the following samples from FSI proficiency ratings ("S" refers to speaking, "R" to reading):

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[2] The rating system used by FSI is only partially quoted here. For the complete rating descriptions and source citation see chapter 4.

S-1 Able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements. Can ask and answer questions on topics very familiar to him; within the scope of his very limited language experience can understand simple questions and statements, allowing for slowed speech, repetition or paraphrases; speaking vocabulary inadequate to express anything but the most elementary needs; errors in pronunciation and grammar are frequent, but can be understood by a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners attempting to speak his language; while topics which are "very familiar" and elementary needs vary considerably from individual to individual, any person at the S-1 level should be able to order a simple meal, ask for shelter or lodging, ask and give simple directions, make purchases, and tell time.

R-1 Able to read some personal and place names, street signs, office and ship designations, numbers and isolated words and phrases. Can recognize all the letters in the printed version of an alphabetic system and high-frequency elements of a syllabary or a character system.

With other rating levels 2, 3, and 4 not quoted here, one gets a sense of the range of the ratings by contrasting the above with level 5:

S-5 Speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker. Has complete fluency in the language such that his speech on all levels is fully accepted by educated native speakers in all of its features, including breadth of vocabulary and idiom, colloqualisms, and pertinent cultural references.

R-5 Reading proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native. Can read extremely difficult and abstract prose, as well as highly colloquial writings and the classic literary forms of the language. With varying degrees of difficulty can read all normal kinds of handwritten documents.

The definitions of this study are consistent with the FSI rating system in the following points: (1) the cultural element is considered a part of the speaking and listening dimension of bilingualism, (2) bilingualism is to be measured in terms of native ability, and (3) the reading and writing skills are separately described. The standards at the level of an "educated native speaker" are not kept in this definition, except when referring to international bilingualism. Rather, it is said that the standard shall be that of a "typical" native speaker of the language. This is done taking cognizance of the fact that there are many viable subgroups using the same language and that all of these subgroups do not necessarily have "educated" native speakers. In fact, in the case of minorities within the United States, it is more frequently the case that the speakers of the languages are considered on the whole to be educationally disadvantaged.

A LINKAGE MODEL FOR LANGUAGES FOR THE WORLD OF WORK

A basic premise of this study and to our concept of languages for the world of work is the need to recognize that multiple resources must be used and coordinated if any effective result is to be realized. There is nothing of the "ivory tower" in languages for the world of work since the languages are many and the applications diverse and pragmatic.

The linkages necessary to achieve success are illustrated in Figure 2. Training responsibilities must be jointly assumed by language departments and various other specialties developing programs to produce cross-trained language specialists. Placement is of crucial importance, and the general resources for placement which constitute the job market are government, business, and industry.

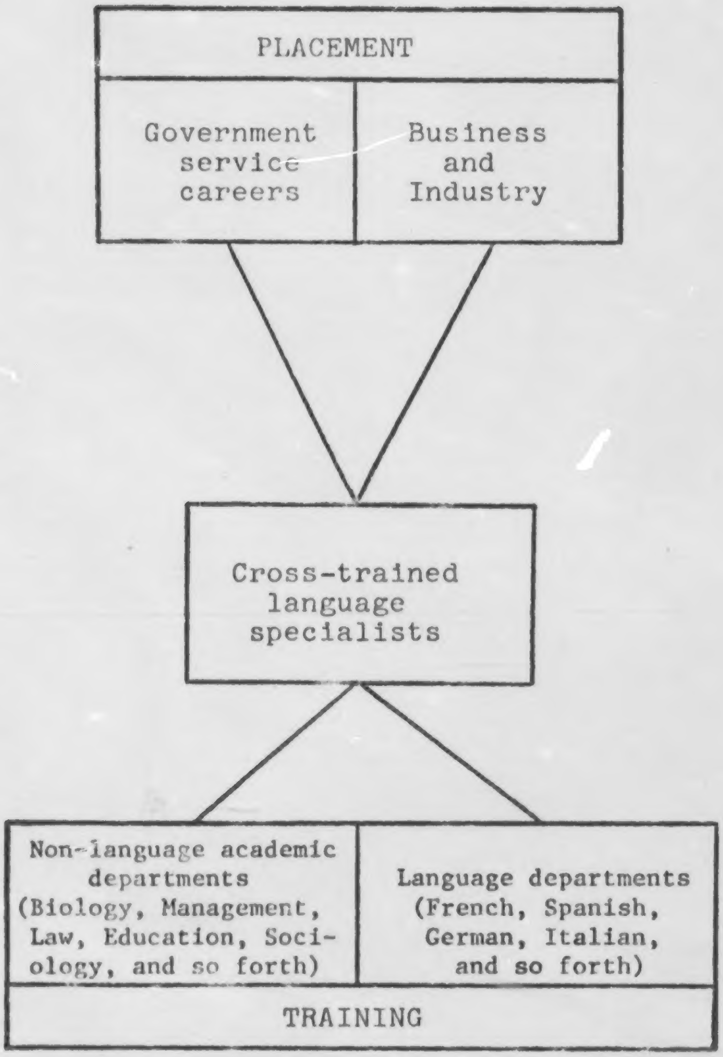
PLACEMENT
Government service careers
Business and Industry
Cross-trained language specialists
Non-language academic departments (Biology, Management, Law, Education, Sociology, and so forth)
Language departments (French, Spanish, German, Italian, and so forth)
TRAINING

Figure 2.2. A Linkage Model for Languages for the World of Work

This study is but a beginning, an exploration. It has focused on the problem of placement in a general but fundamental sense. Data are cited which justify the thesis that language-related jobs are available and will likely continue to be available. Some of the most important priorities suggested by the study are indicative of where and how programs might be directed for greater chance for success. Curriculum models are provided to illustrate ways in which instruction might be effectively structured; but they are merely sketches.

The needs of government, business, and industry must be articulated more precisely in order to move from curriculum models to courses and then on to programs. In business and industry an educational effort is needed in some cases to convince the employers that language and cultural training "pay off." Academia cannot expect to "market" its graduates until it builds a greater willingness than it typically has demonstrated, to cooperate across departments. Jumping prematurely into a program without a period of capacity building will inevitably result in failure.

More in-depth probing of the basic question would benefit the entire profession: How can the resources and the needs of government, business, industry, and the training institutions be orchestrated to effect changes that will bring about a smooth operation of the linkage model suggested earlier?

Hopefully the LWOW study is a prerequisite step now taken. If the data and other information can be influential in getting programs started and refined or in encouraging the "fledgling" effort; if it can serve as a point of common discussion to catalyze professional unity; if the needs justified here by research are truly the sine qua non that many have suggested was a first step toward being able to mobilize large-scale effort -- if any of these result from this project -- then the efforts will have been worthwhile. We feel hopeful and encouraged that from this point the profession can move forward in establishing a coordinated linkage system and in bringing about the practical application of languages for the world of work.

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PHASE I: SEARCH OF THE LITERATURE

Phase I of the LWOW study called for conducting a survey of the literature. In actuality, this involved two separate but closely related tasks: (1) a search of the literature for support of the study, and (2) a compilation of an annotated bibliography on languages in the world of work as one of the outcomes or products of the study.

SEARCH OF THE LITERATURE FOR SUPPORT OF THE STUDY

It was imperative that staff associates and others who would be designing the study, gathering data, and working toward the final preparation of the report be knowledgeable about current writings in the field, with respect to foreign languages and how they relate to the world of work. Part of this task was also to formulate a resource list of institutions and persons whose inputs were vital to the conceptualization and carrying out of the study.

This type of literature search, obviously necessary for various purposes but admittedly done rather informally by accumulation into the heads and minds of the researchers on a subtle basis, is difficult to systematically document. To be sure, this "working search" of the literature has been carried out and is inevitably, although not always obviously, a formal part of our reporting of results. Researchers were not only influenced by that which they read but by attendance at meetings, by informal conversations with professional colleagues, by telephone conversations, and probably most of all by contact with educators, diplomats, and businessmen who comprised the main source of data for the major part of the study. It has not always been possible to formally and completely document all of these sources, although many are found in the more formal search of the literature which will be described shortly.

Of major concern in the initial stages of this project was the compilation of a comprehensive list of companies, firms, corporations, and agencies involved in business or missions overseas and domestically, whose personnel might be required to transact business by means of languages other than English. It was found that many lists of various kinds were available in sources which are included in the annotated bibliography of this study and other more general references listed below which are not.

The following sources provided basic information regarding business contacts and addresses:

Angel, Juvenal L. Looking for Employment in Foreign Countries. New York: World Trade Academy Press, Inc., 1961.

________________. Compiler. Directory of Intercorporate Ownership (Who Owns Whom in America). New York: World Trade Academy Press, Inc., 1974.

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American Translators Association. Professional Services Directory. New York: American Translators Association, yearly.

Bruner, Karen. Compiler. Research, Study, Travel and Work Abroad. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971.

Liebers, Arthur. How to Get the Job You Want Overseas. New York: Pilot Industries, Inc., 1968.

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Paradis, Adrian A. Jobs to Take You Places -- Here and Abroad. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1968.

Sherif, June Lowry. Handbook of Foreign Language Occupations. New York: Regents Publishing Company, Inc., 1966.

World Trade Academy Press, Inc. Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries. New York: World Trade Academy Press, Inc., 1975.

________________. Directory of American Firms Operating in the United States. New York: World Trade Academy Press, Inc., 1975.

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From these, and other lists found in the literature search, it became evident that there was no complete list of all agencies and companies operating abroad which need second language proficiency among their employees. To make such a list and keep it current would be a herculean task. Such lists as those found in the above sources tend to become obsolete almost as soon as they are in print because of changes in personnel and locales, and because of the enormously complex, dynamic nature of corporate structure, stock ownership, and the constantly changing scene in international economic affairs.

Foreign language teachers and students are best advised to make their own lists of companies, according to the accessibility of the corporate headquarters, the nature of the firms' products, their business interests, and the likelihood for job satisfaction on the part of the seeker.

The most valuable sources for compiling such lists are the following:

(1) The American International Trade Register -- Available on computer tape or as hard copy from the Department of Commerce in Washington, D.C. This list includes all businesses which have an "expressed interest" in marketing their products abroad and is so complete that it includes many small firms, so small that they should not be considered on a large scale as prospective employers. There is no indication in the register as to the size of the company, its assets, or number of employees. The names of companies, addresses, and chief international officers are identified. The cost is $350 which may not be within the reach of an individual school or college. Products or services, however, are coded in the register in accordance with the standard industrial classification (SIC) codes.[1] One of the main advantages of this list is that it is kept current, its

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[1] Executive Office of the President, Office of Management and Budget, Standard Industrial Classification Manual. 1972 edition is the current one (Superintendent of Documents, stock #4101-0066).

products and services are identified through the SIC code, and it is the most comprehensive list available.

(2) Fortune Magazine -- issued monthly by Time-Life, Inc. In this study, the May 1974 issue (volume LXXXIX, number 5) was consulted; it presented information regarding the five hundred largest industrial corporations, ranked by sales, in the United States. Fortune updates this information annually. Most of the corporations listed are multinational, which makes the information meaningful to one seeking overseas opportunities. Although there is no indication of the percentage of business done overseas by these companies, one may assume that in order to be placed in the category of the top five hundred U.S. business firms, a company would no doubt have a considerable proportion of its total effort directed toward overseas activities.

(3) A Directory of U.S. Export Management Companies (U.S. Department of Commerce, Domestic and International Business Administration Bureaus of International Commerce) -- April 1975 was the current edition used in the study. This directory is divided into three parts. The first is an alphabetical listing of all the companies and the product index number assigned to that firm. The second section lists the firms in numerical order (1 to 668) by product index number. This section contains available details on the individual firms including addresses, contact executive, phone number,

telex and cable numbers, and a brief description of products handled. The third section of the directory is a product index containing an alphabetical listing of products and index numbers of the firms which handle these products.

(4) Standard and Poor's Directory -- One of the best sources of information regarding the nature of a company, its officers, its organization, products and assets.

(5) Article titled "U.S. Firms Operating Overseas" (compiled by Research Projects Corporation) -- This is an alphabetical listing of American firms operating in ninety foreign countries, specifying type, service, or product each firm offers and giving addresses of home offices where applicants may apply for jobs.

(6) Shaw's Trade Publication[2] -- This is a paperback which lists business firms that do business overseas. However, one must not count on one such publication for current reliable information, even though it is periodically reissued. As the title implies, it is more a commercial pitch or trade seller book than an empirical documentation of industry and job opportunities abroad.

(7) Miscellaneous -- Others include local offices of the United States Chamber of Commerce, the Departments of Commerce and of Labor, other governmental bureau releases, and publications of college placement offices.

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[2] Ray Shaw, How to Find Those Great Overseas Jobs (New York: Award Books, 1973).

THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY PRODUCED BY THE STUDY

For many years, the language profession in academia, with few individual exceptions, had taken the stance that foreign language as a study was a branch of the humanities, undertaken for its cultural, linguistic, and mostly literary value.

This traditional approach to literature study, referred to as the "humanities approach," differs in purpose with the acquisition of languages in order to obtain specific technical vocabulary or intercultural communicative skills necessary to sustain another occupation. To thus qualify oneself directly for employment through the additional technical skill of languages and culture skills is a relatively new career objective in the pre-university and the university environment. It is of course the position of this study as a whole that this latter movement is at present a badly retarded one. Under this concept, the language skill, together with appropriate cultural sensitivity, is integrally related to acquisition of concurrent professional or technical training in a field in which the language and cultural knowledge may be used. While the literature and resources in this regard moderately abound, there was not a readily available body of literature that is identified specifically as justification and theory for foreign language teaching on the basis of career preparation, using an acquired language as an adjunct or integrated skill with another professional preparation.

During the course of this study, it was determined that there was a definite need for a bibliography relating specifically to language training for the world of work. This is not to oppose the continuing existence of language study justified for intercultural enrichment, communications, literary values, and so on. Since the main thrust until now for the professional language student has been toward literature, or in some cases toward linguistics, and not for the purpose of relating language and linguistic preparation to communication in business, in law, in sociology, in diplomacy, or any other endeavor, it is only natural that a bibliographic gap exists. We hope to partially satisfy this gap by making available a fairly comprehensive annotated bibliography devoted strictly to language and language learning for the world of work.

In order to obtain the widest circulation possible at most convenience to prospective users, ORC plans to enter the annotated bibliography in the ERIC Clearinghouse system. It is to be made available through the ERIC on Languages and Linguistics, 1611 N. Kent Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209. Full documentation is not available at the time of this writing, but it can be obtained later from the ERIC center or from ORC.

Although some references do not have a significant or extremely relevant bearing on the study itself (i.e., the collection of specific jobs and skills data), much material exists from past years that fits into a comprehensive bibliography on languages and the world of work. Some of this material is highly relevant today in establishing an undergirding concept or rationale for what are the next steps in promoting the concept of the languages for the world of work or for inducing needed curricular innovations. This, we believe, should begin by preparing an integrated plan for a student's overall training in management, law, accounting, or other fields of learning with which language study might be combined to provide satisfying and remunerative employment.

An immense impetus was given to the approach to languages for the world of work when it became apparent that the humanities graduates -- those whose majors were primarily in languages as literature or theoretical linguistics -- were virtually unemployable in their chosen fields and were driving taxis or working on construction, or who found themselves on unemployment, relief, or otherwise frustrated in their attempts to find a satisfying job for which they were well prepared, according to prevailing standards. Even the once wide-open field of teaching foreign languages became overcrowded, with many graduating majors who hold teaching credentials at the secondary level, as well as qualifications at the collegiate level, unable to find positions.

As this has taken place, there has been a growing number of professional writings that justify language study from the standpoint of economic necessity or need and employment placeability. There have also been (albeit, at a somewhat immature stage as yet) theoretical positions as to how best this shift of emphasis or additional thrust in foreign language training might be accomplished. Other elements of thought occur in speeches and in conversations at professional meetings as to how to make language learning more germane to the world of work.

It was, of course, our primary endeavor to become acquainted with the most current writings, speeches, films, or other media and use the ideas in attacking the project, designing the study, identifying major problems, and so on, in designing questionnaires, finding resources with which to work, and finding empirical objective data. Once compiled, it was hoped, such a bibliography would be a desirable resource that could be shared by language teachers and foreign service professionals.

Therefore, it was decided that, to the fullest extent possible, a formal compilation in the form of an annotated bibliography publishable and able to be disseminated in separate form for the benefit of the public generally, would be presented.

Several arbitrary rules had to be made in doing this: It was not felt wise, for example, to extend the bibliography too many years in the past (in fact, the limitation used was publications since 1960, with earlier sources being relatively scarce, as compared, for instance, to the availability of publications of the past five years). Naturally, particularly enlightening articles of considerable relevance were accepted.

It is felt, however, that a rather exhaustive effort has been made to compile a working bibliography which, even though it is comprehensive, suffers from two notable defects: (1) despite systematic searching by traditional and automated search methods, there is always the chance that important references have been missed, and (2) laboring under a practical deadline, certain late identified articles simply could not be included after typesetting, indexing, and so forth had already been finalized. Some of these might have been highly relevant, and this admission is made with apology but it is unavoidable. It is hoped (this will be enlarged upon later) that a periodic update of such a bibliography will be seen as valuable in helping to obviate the two problems identified here.

With respect to the formal compilation of the annotated bibliography -- a few notes regarding methodology and procedure should be made, both for reasons of documenting our approach for whatever assistance this may offer, negatively or positively, to future researchers.

We began by setting out a statement of work regarding the survey of the literature as follows:

(1) ORC would search the literature for references to be published and to the extent possible unpublished, books, monographs, pamphlets, articles, other writings, films and other media information which:

  (a) Were relevant to the overall study or to anticipated future studies in this field.

  (b) Contained theories, research reports, or curriculum designs which relate non-English language instruction to the world of work or career preparation.

  (c) Comprised curricula or other instructional materials, techniques, approaches, teaching manuals, and so on for occupationally oriented language study.

  (d) Inventoried or forecast manpower requirements in industry and government which encompass occupations requiring more than one language proficiency.

(e) Examine the need for language capabilities in occupations.

(f) Assessed the impact and implications of the existence of a portion of the labor force domestically employed as monolinguals in languages other than English, for language training or the employment of bilinguals or other persons capable of communication with the monolinguals in the work setting (as opposed to social communication).

(2) ORC would provide a brief annotation for each source available compiled in (1) above describing the contents of the article. Standard bibliographic notations with the respective annotations would comprise the annotated bibliography.

(3) ORC would be responsible for the publication and dissemination of the annotated bibliography by one or more of the following methods:

(a) Publication in a scholarly journal.

(b) Publication as a monograph.

(c) Inclusion in the final report of the study.

The factors of length (size), expense, and timeliness of the publication of the annotated bibliography were to be the principal criteria for determining the exact manner of the publication and dissemination.

But before this time, for a period of several months, all ORC staff associated with the LWOW study had been informally accumulating materials -- files, books, journals, reprints of articles, and references to published and unpublished sources. The following model was prepared for abstracting and documenting relevant entries, although in most cases annotations turned out to be somewhat shorter than the sample provided below:

> Emmans, Keith; Hawkins, Eric; and Westoby, Adam. The Use of Foreign Languages in the Private Sector of Industry and Commerce. University of York: Language Teaching Centre, 1974.
>
> Report of a survey performed at University of York, England, funded by the Department of Education and Science during 1971-72 at unspecified fiscal level and at L 17,150 by the Nuffield Foundation in 1972. Goal was to conduct pilot survey of "the modern FL requirements of British industry." Survey limited to United Kingdom only. Labor force in the public sector of the armed services, diplomatic and consular services, and the education system were excluded from survey. Two groups of subjects form the data base: (1) persons known to possess FL skills, and (2) firms employing persons with FL skills. Since data were collected 1971-72 prior to the United Kingdom's entry into EEC, conclusions and data may reflect erroneously the situation due to the impact of this event. Variables include: actual job experiences by categories of FL-speaking persons; projection of quantity, location, and types of jobs available where FL is a "must have" qualification and "desirable to have" qualification; degree of FL skill necessary to particular types of jobs; languages, i.e., French, German, and so on; actual proficiency levels of FL persons; categorization of industry; categorization of FL labor force; expenditures of forms for FL assistance; sex; age; mother tongue and FL acquisition source; language activities performed by FL-speaking persons; types of and amount of time spent in FL activities; descriptive data are included summarizing comments, nonquantifiable variables, survey methodology, conclusions, and recommendations.

Staff members who had read the entries were asked to prepare corresponding entries in line with the above model. All accumulated references, unread by ORC staff at that point, were assigned to certain staff members, who prepared the abstracts and bibliographic references according to the proposed format.

Realizing the magnitude of the job and the fact that there were various other aspects of the study to be completed by the ORC staff, ORC negotiated a subcontract with the Educational Development Corporation (EDC) of Austin, Texas, to perform much of the remainder of the search, nonduplicative of the prior ORC work.

In order to produce a systematic search and to tap resources not conveniently and readily available to the researchers, EDC was engaged for a period of four weeks to make the more exhaustive search. The same statement of work and format appearing previously were presented to EDC for clarifying their expected role.

Unread references that had not previously been abstracted by ORC or EDC staff members were assigned to EDC for reading and abstracting. In addition, EDC performed automatic and manual searches for new sources, using as major resources the facilities of the University of Texas at Austin; Educational Service Center, Region 19; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory; the Foreign Language Education Center at the University of Texas at Austin; and various other resources, including ERIC and commercial and noncommercial sources. A complete list of sources searched by EDC appears as Item One at the end of this chapter. A list of documents referenced but not found by EDC appears as Item Two. These of course because of their unavailability, were never annotated. After an initial search and annotation of four weeks' duration, EDC performed the following additional tasks:

(1) Continued the search to include checking of important resources not previously done

(2) Compiling a cross-indexing system

(3) Integrating a cross-indexing of ORC-produced abstracts and references with EDC's similar output

Upon reception of EDC's final work, preparations began for publication of the literature survey as an annotated bibliography on "Languages for the World of Work." Because of its voluminous size and its discrete nature, we felt that it would be more valuable as a separate resource to be compiled and disseminated separately.

However, after EDC's work and as progress continued in search of literature at ORC and through survey team members, new references came to light, and in-house work continued to merge even newer references into the overall bibliography. Since this was seen as a "never-ending" job, the bibliography, consistent with the latest possible required completion date, was closed and printed in its extant state at that time. This required a complete revision of all prior work to clarify and correct the index. The format editorially has been retained as set up and designed originally by EDC. Notes regarding this appear as Item Three, "Guidelines for Use."

ORC resources included, but were not limited to, the following:

(1) Professional reading of staff from which bibliographies were referred to ORC staff to cross-check

(2) Library search for periodical sources of major professional journals from the "Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature" at the University of Utah's Marriott Library, Salt Lake City

(3) Other standard search procedures of the holdings of the Marriott Library

(4) Standard search procedures of the holdings of the Harold B. Lee Library, Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah

(5) Two volumes of Subject Guide to Books in Print, published by R.R. Bowker Company, New York, 1974, and four volumes of Books in Print (volumes 1 and 2 by authors, volumes 3 and 4 by titles), published by the Bowker company, 1974

(6) Personal files of Dr. Ernest J. Wilkins, project director, and staff associates

(7) Pamphlets, papers, periodicals, and so forth from the Division of Manpower Training and Development, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C., specifically Dr. Howard Matthews, director, and his personal files and from office files of Robert Worthington, Manpower Division

(8) Personal contacts with Mr. LeRoy Walser, Office of Bilingual Education, USOE, Washington, D.C.

(9) Sources collected for individualized Spanish course taught by Dr. Wilkins for business executives; participants of program involved with either handling or writing much material that later proved valuable to LWOW project

(10) Brochures, pamphlets, periodicals from state offices of education, i.e., Office of Public Instruction, or official SEA

(11) Visits by Dr. Wilkins to office of Dr. Richard Brod, executive director of the Association of Departments of Foreign Languages and executive secretary Modern Language Association

(12) Materials collected from conventions attended; i.e., ADFL-Atlanta, Georgia, 1973; ACTFL, Boston, 1972; and ACTFL, Denver, 1974

(13) Publication lists of the World Trade Academy Press, Inc.; 58 East 42nd Street, New York, New York 10017 (Spring 1975)

The system of documentation and indexing, including annotations, is clear enough from the document itself.

It is well to warn the user of this bibliography of several other matters not mentioned previously, or at least mentioned only in passing:

(1) The age and obsolescence of documentation includes references since 1960. Some older materials near the 1960 date and afterwards were considered as irrelevant and were thus deleted.

(2) The decision to annotate was made in view of the fact that a simple alphabetical listing of sources serves only one purpose: to demonstrate that the search has been made and is comprised of a certain number of documents. It was thought that such meager bibliographical material would not be useful to future researchers.

(3) Only English (American) language sources were systematically surveyed. It was the intent of the research staff not to extend its investigation into foreign language sources; however, some penetration was made into Canadian or British documentation. Yet no special effort was made to include these.

One final note is in order and has been alluded to previously. Continuing revision of a document of this type would be highly useful to the profession. A yearly update may not be too frequent to be of value, but at least an annotated bibliography on a regular basis concerning languages and the world of work would not only keep the profession more abreast of development, but could be an important part of the theoretical thrust toward a more clear direction of the practical use of languages and language teaching as an adjunct skill to other professions.

One great deficiency noted in the literature survey, one that should be noted more than casually, is the substantive lack of theoretical direction and impetus toward actual change, even though there is considerable enthusiasm for the basic concept of languages for the world of work. Provisions for viable and workable curriculum ideas, particularly in conjunction with other professions where languages are to serve as the adjunct skills, are notably few, but where they do exist, they are produced by only a few advanced thinkers who themselves would probably be the first to invite competing hypotheses and ideas. Likewise, the literature would be enriched with more contributions from the professions and technical occupations themselves recognizing the marriage of professional-technical-career preparation and language preparation. With such provisions made, we will now be able to go beyond a mere professed belief in the viability of languages for the world of work.

THE ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY AS A SEPARATE DOCUMENT FROM THE REPORT

As indicated, the annotated bibliography has been compiled as a separate document which is to be made available through ERIC. Most of the previous material of this chapter appear also in the introduction to that document. Because of its voluminous size, the annotated bibliography itself is not reproduced in this final report. To those who officially are to be included in the distribution list of the final report, a Xerox copy of the entire annotated bibliography will be supplied. This copy of the bibliography is as prepared for ERIC in manuscript form. Potential users should note that the work is unedited so far as ERIC is concerned and may appear in the ERIC system with alterations -- made as a consequence of the ERIC editing.

Reproduced here immediately following this section are three items which appear also in the annotated bibliography. These are:

Item One: Sources Searched by EDC

Item Two: Documents Not Found by EDC

Item Three: Guidelines for Use (of the annotated bibliography)

Persons not on the official distribution list who desire a copy of the annotated bibliography are urged to obtain access to it through the ERIC system. Requests for ORC to reproduce the annotated bibliography after the initial distribution can only be honored upon agreement to pay Xerox reproduction cost of approximately $35.

ITEM ONE: SOURCES SEARCHED BY EDC

The sources that are considered completely searched are as follows:

Abstracts of Research and Related Materials in Vocational and Technical Education (ARM), 1967-74

Abstracts of Instructional Materials in Vocational and Technical Education (ARM), 1967-74

Business Education Index, 1967-72 (latest available)

Business Periodicals Index, July 1965-December 1974

ERIC both computer and manual searches, both by descriptors and authors, 1967-74 in RIE

ERIC manual search in CIJE, 1969-74

Education Index, July 1964-January 1975

Public Affairs Information Service, 1965-74

New York Times Index

Wall Street Journal Index

Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature, 1965-74

Social Service Citation Index

Journal of Economic Literature, 1968-74

Research Information System of the Social and Rehabilitation Service, H.E.W.

Dissemination Center for Bilingual and Bicultural Education

Dissertation Abstracts, 1968-74

Forrester: Occupational Literature, 1971

Bulletin of the Association of the Departments of Foreign Languages (ADFL Bulletin), 1972-75

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)

Foreign Language Annals (FL/ANNALS), 1967-74

Britannica Review of Foreign Language Education I-V

Hispania Journals, 1965-75

The sources considered partially researched are:

Current Contents, 1975-75

Poverty and Human Resources Abstracts

Government Reports Annual Index

Cumulative Subject Index to the Monthly Catalog of U.S. Government Publications, 1900-71

Those sources considered relatively untouched are:

Occupational Manpower and Training Needs

Lewis; Manpower Planning: A Bibliography, 1969

ITEM TWO: DOCUMENTS NOT FOUND BY EDC

In the literature search, the Educational Development Corporation was unable to find the following documents:

Arroya, Gloria; and Pond, Gloria. "Cooperation in the Community: The Bilingual Paraprofessional Program." Community Services Catalyst (Spring 1974), vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 39-44.

Bernsen, Sam. "Lawful Work for Non-immigrants (U.S.)." Interpreter Releases (June 21, 1971), no. 48, pp. 168-74.

Brazean, Jacques. "Language Differences and Occupational Experience." Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science (1958), vol. 29.

Bureau of Appointments and Occupational Information, Career Counseling Unit, University of Michigan. Sources of Employment for Foreign Language Majors and Minors. Revised edition. 1959.

> Occupational Information Bulletin No. 1, printed and distributed by Modern Language Association Foreign Language Program Research Center, 4 Washington Place East, New York 10003.

Burns, Ruth Aline Ketchum. "Model for a Career/Life-Planning Program for Mexican-American College Students." Eugene: University of Oregon. Ph.D. dissertation. 1973. 146 pages.

"Business Languages: Courses in Foreign Languages for Businessmen." Times Education Supplement (September 9, 1966), vol. 2677, no. 597.

"Careers in Languages: The Bilingual Secretary." New York: Latin American Institute.

"Careers in World Affairs." *Intercom* (November-December 1964), vol. 6, no. 21.

Information sources, organization, opportunities, training.

Casewit, Curtis. *How to Get a Job Overseas*. New York: Arco Publishing Co.

"Congressional Quarterly: Weekly Report." Bilingual Education-Vocational Education (April 6, 1974), pp. 887-88.

De Weaver, N.C. "NCTU Labor Schools for Spanish-speaking." *America* (August 6, 1955), vol. 93, pp. 451-53.

Emery, Maxine. "Bilingual Educator for Office Occupations." Business Education World, vol. 51, no. 3 (January-February 1971), 4-5.

Ferns, George W. and David D. McWethy. "A Guide to Overseas Professional Opportunities." *Industrial Arts Education* (November-December 1969), vol. 29, no. 2, pp. 41-44.

Fisher, John C. "Bilingualism in Puerto Rico: A History of Frustration." *English Record* (April 1971), vol. 21, no. 4.

Foreign Policy Association, World Affairs Center. *Careers in World Affairs: At Home and Abroad*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1961. 140 pages.

Gordon, Margaret S. Editor. *Higher Education and the Labor Market*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974. 630 pp.

"Guide to Employment Abroad." New York: International Publications.

Hall, Edward T. "Seminar on Manpower Policy and Program: The Manpower Potential in our Ethnic Groups." Washington, D.C.: United States Manpower Administration, Office of Manpower Policy, Evaluation and Research, August 1967. 24 pages.

Condensed transcript of the Seminar on Manpower Policy and Program, Washington, D.C., January 12, 1967.

Liebers, Arthur. *How to Get the Job You Want Overseas*. New York: Pilot Industries, Inc.

Lukmani. "Motivation to Learn and Language Proficiency." Language Learning (1972), vol. 22, no. 2, pp. 261-73.

McClinton, Johnnie W. "Effectiveness of a Bilingual Vocational-Technical Development Program." Columbia: University of Missouri. Ph.D. dissertation. 1972. 113 pages.

McEmory. "Pilot Project in Bilingual Office Occupations, Brownsville, Texas ISD." American Vocational Journal (March 1970), vol. 45, no. 62.

McKinley, Bruce. "Occupational Information Access System: A Model System of Labor Market Information for Use in Counseling." Journal of Educational Data Processing (1970), vol. 7, no. 5, pp. 283-91.

Marchenko, B. "Russian for Scientists." Russian Language Journal (October 1969), vol. 23, no. 86, pp. 12-17.

Newman, Christina. "Learning French Is No Longer a Courtesy in Ottawa; It's a Necessity: The Problems Involved are Producing a New Age of Anxiety." Saturday Night (October 1968), no. 83.

Concerning a new requirement that English-speaking government employees be bilingual.

Nijssen, John B. A. "English for International Communication." ITL Review of Applied Linguists (1972), vol. 18, pp. 69-72.

"Occupational Briefs: Foreign Correspondents, Foreign Language Workers, Translators and Interpreters." Chicago: Science Research Associates.

Pan American Union. Occupational Opportunities for Students Majoring in Spanish and Portuguese. Information Series, Bulletin 1959, No. 5, Washington, D.C.

Peyre, Henri. The Need for Language Study in America Today. New York: The Cultural Division of the French Embassy, 1954.

Prol, J. Occupational Opportunities through Learning Foreign Languages. Largo, Maryland: Prince George Community College, Department of Foreign Language.

"The Rising Price of Bilingualism." Monetary Times (August 1966), no. 134, pp. 19-21.

Importance in the business community of French Canada of proficiency in both French and English; proposals to encourage such efficiency.

Starr, Wilmarth H.; et al. "The Role of Foreign Languages in American Life." Reports of the Working Committee. Northeast Conference on Teachers of Foreign Language. 1955.

Tinsley, Royal L., Jr. "Too Many Translators?" A.T.A. Chronical (May-June 1973), vol. 2, no. 5, pp. 3-4.

United States House of Representatives, 92d Cong., 2d Sess., Committee on the Judiciary, Civil Rights Oversight Subcommittee. "Federal Employment Problems of the Spanish-Speaking: Learnings" (serial no. 26), March 8-10, 1972. 515 pages.

United States Information Agency. "Careers in Cross-Cultural Communication." Washington, D.C.: U.S. Information Agency.

________________. "Career Opportunities for Young People in the U.S.I.A. Foreign Service." Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962.

________________. "Employment Opportunities in Binational Centers Abroad." Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office.

ITEM THREE: GUIDELINES FOR USE

The abstracts are arranged in seven sections as follows:

Section I:	Relevance
Section II:	Designs
Section III:	Materials
Section IV:	Manpower Requirements
Section V:	Occupational Language Needs
Section VI:	Special Needs
Section VII:	

- A. Bibliographies
- B. Directories, Guides, Lists

The first six sections present documents according to their primary focus in the six areas shown above; the seventh section comprises those documents which are bibliographies, directories, listings, or indices. Within each group, the documents are arranged alphabetically and then numbered. The first digit of the three-digit number identifies the section number, and hence the primary subject.

Each abstract also indicates any areas of secondary coverage, in terms of the six areas listed above. We have tried to provide in each abstract the most useful information about the document and its contents as it might relate to this particular project; those documents which cover more than one of the six areas may prove to be the most valuable in the long run. Several documents were not available to us other than in abstracts or reviews, and their annotations so indicate.

There are three indices at the back of this volume: an author index, which is fairly standard except for the inclusion of organizations as authors where individual names are not known; a document source index, which identifies the organizational sources of our listings; and a subject index, cross-referenced to expedite searches. In all three of these indices, the numbers given refer to citations and not to pages.

For those users who are doing research on these or related areas, the following points may be helpful:

(1) These abstracts do not pretend to provide complete or balanced coverage of each document. Rather, they cover the subjects of special interest for this study; they may make brief mention of other subjects contained in particular documents, or they may ignore them entirely.

(2) Many of the documents contain their own reference lists or bibliographies. These should be useful tools for further research.

(3) Finally, there are several documents within the six primary areas that are known to us but are not included here, primarily because the documents could not be found in the time frame available to us. These are not listed herein, but are listed in many of the documents cited. (See Item Two.)

The reverse of the title page may contain information about any or all of these items, as appropriate, and as selected by the publisher:

(1) Publisher's name and correspondence address

(2) Where printed and bound

(3) Any caveat required by the grantor or contracting agency; identification of contract number and source

(4) Method of procurement of additional copies: how obtained, cost, and so forth

(5) Publisher's identification of the volume if part of a series or set

(6) Other similar documents available from the publisher

(7) Edition number

(8) Copyright information

4

PHASE II-a: LANGUAGES FOR GOVERNMENT SERVICE CAREERS

This phase of the study began with the development of an instrument intended for general use with all government agencies (comparable to the instrument used in the survey of business and industry). A pilot test revealed that the instrument designed did not lend itself to the collection of the data intended to be compiled. For example, in many agencies, figures were not readily available concerning the number of employees who spoke certain languages, the extent of their ability in those languages, what those languages were, and so forth. This is not to suggest that the agencies were uncooperative or inefficient, but to tabulate the data at a given point in time would have been an imposition on most of the agencies.

Tabulations for certain past years were sometimes available, but they varied greatly, depending upon needs, particular programs funded, international conditions, and so on. Also, international relations are unstable from year to year. For example, large numbers of personnel are trained where interdepartmental cooperation is required for a given project, but the situation may be only temporary. One example of this is the relatively large number of personnel in various agencies of the government, in addition to the military, who received training in Vietnamese until the American withdrawal. An abrupt drop to almost insignificant numbers of students learning Vietnamese in the United States coincided with the American withdrawal from Vietnam. Another reason that figures were not available is that for certain agencies -- the CIA, for example -- information regarding the number of trainees in various languages is classified.

Because of the inappropriateness of the pilot instrument, it was discarded. It was determined that this phase of the project could best be described in a narrative, using case-study format. Open-ended primary interviews were held with the person at the highest level in each particular government agency who was responsible for language training. Additional interviews with other personnel, such as supervisors and teachers, and a number of follow-up interviews were made to clarify certain points and to enlarge the information base. Observation of training sessions, study of training materials, and the testing of materials were done where permissible.

Perhaps the most remarkable realization that resulted from all this is that in almost all of the interviews and the observations of language training classes, the federal government is staffed (where appropriate) with highly qualified professional language training personnel. In a few agencies, where language needs are limited or are only recently being recognized, this generalization may not hold true, but on the whole language training is geared toward efficiency, accountability, and economy, and, above all, it is strictly career oriented. In some cases (described in detail subsequently) interdepartmental use of a single language training resource prevails. The best example of this is the Foreign Service Institute (FSI), which is administered under the State Department but which accepts trainees from other agencies as well. The Defense Language Institute (DLI) functions in a similar manner.

The Central Intelligence Agency, on the other hand, trains only its own personnel. Its methods were described to us only in general terms. Specific course materials and methods are classified, and as has been mentioned, number of trainees in each language is also classified. Nevertheless, some general descriptions of approach and method were described which, like other governmental units, emphasized relevancy and efficiency.

Unlike business and industry, almost every language training unit of the United States government maintains and uses a proficiency rating system highly relevant to the training aims or purposes. During the training period, enrollees are constantly monitored and evaluated in terms of progress toward the preselected level of proficiency as a goal. Naturally, these levels are described in "work terms" or in other words in terms of demonstrable performance in the target language that is directly related to the career and job performance expected of the individual candidates when they are placed in a foreign or domestic assignment to employ the language as part of their job.

It is striking that despite the existence of a large number of companies who exhibited strong desires to improve language training, and who also emphasized the need for economy and efficiency in the training process, no evidence was found that any of the companies even approach the sophistication in proficiency rating, training and relevancy of approach that is evident in most cases in the U.S. government foreign language training programs. This is particularly ironic in that industrialists and businessmen are often prone to decry the inefficiency of government and to proclaim the efficiency of modern business and industry as being superior to government bureaucracies.

This study, incidentally, also is able to report little emulation of successful government training methods by colleges and universities for students seeking dual preparation in languages and careers. Furthermore, the methods used by colleges and universities do not appear to be sufficiently effective in terms of preparation for government service careers. Large amounts of federal money are spent on training federal government employees in foreign language skills. Many people involved in this training process feel that much of the money is spent on remedial training that should be taking place in the nation's schools and colleges.

Allen I. Weinstein (1975, p. 18) of the FSI elaborates on this problem. It is his function to answer requests for information about jobs in the government from foreign language majors. He finds that college majors rarely possess the S-3 capability required for government service. John Carroll (cited in Weinstein, pp. 26-27), in his study correlating the Modern Language Association exams with the FSI ratings, finds that college students who have had two years of language ordinarily are able to reach the S-1 level of proficiency, while the college graduates barely obtain a rating equivalent to the S-2 rating even after four years of college study.

In general, evidence of having obtained a major in a foreign language does not guarantee that the language is spoken well or understood by the candidate. In testing and evaluating foreign language majors, the FSI made a 1973 study revealing that only 20.7 percent of the entering foreign service officers qualified at S-3 or better; and 19.3 percent had no practical foreign language ability. Of the tests given, 12.3 percent did not receive an S-1 rating. The median result was about S-1 (Weinstein, p. 23). These are indeed dismal results, indicating that if employability of college graduates in government is a goal, certain changes must take place in the teaching of foreign languages.

It is clear that foreign language departments in colleges and universities either haven't been in the business of training people for positions in the federal government or haven't done a good job of it. In light of the dramatic decrease in the teaching positions for which they have classically trained their students, however, some new goals should perhaps be defined. There exists an immense need in the federal service for people who know how to communicate effectively. Much of the government work which takes place in a foreign language is extremely delicate, making ability to relate to other people an essential requisite. Mere mastery at manipulating a language does not ensure this ability. Apparently there is a lack of articulation between school foreign language output and the requirements of government employment input. The FSI feels that more emphasis should be placed upon total communication skills within the framework of foreign language mastery.

In addition, a campaign is needed which would bring about more uniform evaluation procedures in the schools, colleges, and government agencies. If such a procedure existed, a student applying for a job would have in his or her files a rating which a prospective employer would immediately understand in terms of the candidate's ability to speak a foreign language. An absolute rating would be assigned regarding the applicant's ability to perform certain tasks in that language. This would emphasize the point that ability to communicate is the meaningful criterion, rather than the number of years one has studied a language.

Dr. James R. Frith,[1] dean of the School of Language Studies of FSI, suggests that since the nonlanguage skills required are so much more significant in evaluating a student's employability, perhaps a person should major in a subject of high priority and then minor in the language. Under present conditions that may still not produce the desired result. The possibility of a student getting the kind of training required in quality and in content from a course given in college is even more diluted in the minor area of study. Second, the student probably would not get the vocabulary and idiomatic expressions most needed to effectively carry on the nation's work as it relates to foreign countries and is facilitated by a knowledge of their languages.

GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON U.S. GOVERNMENT LANGUAGE TRAINING

The federal government structure is so large and so varied that it is difficult to catalog the types of job opportunities available, even within the defined limits of employment relating to proficiency in speaking a foreign language. According to the Occupational Outlook Handbook (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975, p. 787), about 1.1 million civilian government employees in 1971 worked in activities concerned with national defense and international relations. They were employed by the Defense Department, the State Department, the Department of Commerce, and a few smaller federal agencies such as the Atomic Energy Commission. Occupations in this group include administrative and clerical workers, teachers in overseas schools for children of the U.S. military or diplomatic corps, doctors, nurses, engineers, intelligence specialists, program analysts, scientists, technicians, public relations specialists, negotiators, and an incredible variety of other professions.

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[1] Personal interview, January 1975.

The federal government employs thousands of people who either must or could use a foreign language to efficiently conduct their daily business. They are employed in virtually every nation of the world and increasingly within the borders of the United States itself.

The federal employees with the most obvious need for foreign language skills are those who staff the more than two hundred U.S. embassies and consulates of the State Department; those who function within the U.S. Information Agency, promoting a better understanding of the United States and its policies in other countries; the Agency for International Development staff; and other employees of agencies who deal almost exclusively with the business of the United States as it relates to the rest of the world. In addition, the U.S. government employs people to negotiate treaties and produce joint position papers on matters dealing with virtually every subject from international aviation to fishing and hunting.

Advisory personnel are sent abroad to share expertise on transportation systems and energy research. Military personnel serve abroad in advisory, teaching, and joint planning positions with allied military forces. The frontiers of the United States are patrolled and regulated by persons with a need for language skills. Domestic use of languages other than English by government employees has increased dramatically in social work, education, community development, civil rights, law enforcement and administration of welfare programs.

In general, since the federal government represents a field of employment in which communication plays a fundamental role, it follows that skill in speaking a foreign language is extremely beneficial, if not absolutely necessary, in carrying out the business of the United States. In fact, the variety of positions which require some measure of expertise in a language other than English is almost as varied as the entire spectrum of federal employment itself.

LANGUAGE-DESIGNATED POSITIONS

Many government agencies have not only officially recognized the desirability of having their employees understand and speak a foreign language, but since that is impossible, they have given priority to requiring certain employees to learn the particular language, naming these employment slots "language-designated positions" (LDPs). In the case of the State Department, for example, Section 578 of the Foreign Service Act is the legal directive for LDPs and indicates that the Secretary of State must identify every foreign service officer post in which the incumbent should have a "useful knowledge" of the foreign language or dialect spoken in that particular country. It does not, however, give guidance in terms of how many LDPs should be named.

Currently the "chief of mission" at each post is given the authority to recommend the number of LDPs that he or she requires and at which level the slots should be staffed. This system has given rise to some criticism because language-qualified persons are sometimes difficult to find and ambassadors are reluctant to add language to already stringent requirement listings in any especially sensitive position (since doing so contributes to the difficulty of finding qualified persons and may lead to posts remaining unfilled). For many positions, the desirability of having personnel who are fluent in the language of the host country has had to give way to other practical considerations. This may partially explain why most LDPs are in the "easy" languages; i.e., those spoken in Western Europe.

LDPs in languages that are difficult for English-speaking candidates to learn, such as most of the Asian and Arabic languages, are not easy to staff for several reasons. Obviously, learning a language is an arduous task that requires a long period of time spent in intensive study. There are also some slightly more subtle reasons for the reluctance of foreign service officers to avail themselves of exhaustive training in a language that is difficult to learn. It is generally felt that: (1) the length of time one must spend away from current duties in studying a language removes an officer from the mainstream of activities within the department, with the resultant lack of information and career contacts, and (2) once the investment in time and money spent in training has been made, future assignments within the foreign service will be limited to the rather strictly defined areas where the language is spoken. For example, there is a pressing need for foreign service officers who are fluent in Korean. However, 22 to 24 months are needed away from one's regular work to master the language, and then it can be used only in South Korea.

The State Department personnel division is actively working to combat these feelings of reticence about training in difficult languages. Currently, officers are selected for such training only in connection with an ongoing assignment to an LDP. Considerable emphasis is given the fact that acquiring a difficult language gives a foreign service officer both access to a number of key positions and to the culture and power structure of those countries in which the language is spoken. To give added "clout" to this statement, we hasten to point out that recently three foreign service officers with Arabic language training were named as ambassadors to Persian Gulf posts (King, 1975, pp. 35-37).

At the time of the study in the spring of 1975, within the State Department there were 1,100 LDPs, of which 74 percent were "staffed as required." It is significant, however, that the number added was more than a hundred. This indicates the training importance accorded to U.S. government officials being able to deal with their host country counterparts and the local population in their own language.

As the number of LDPs is adjusted upward, greater demands are placed on the institutions whose function it is to train personnel to qualify for LDPs. The actual number of LDPs within a given country does not accurately reflect the number of people who must be given language training. Many factors come into play with each foreign service assignment, and language ability is only one of these.

Availability, family status, and other areas of rank and expertise also must be considered. Therefore, according to Dr. Frith (interview), the fact that there are thirteen LDPs in Poland does not mean that the State Department needs only thirteen foreign service officers who speak Polish. Officers serve a term of from two to four years, then they are usually reassigned. They may later return to Poland to more responsible positions; or their careers may take other directions, with the consequence that they may never be reassigned to Poland. Thus, over a period of years, the State Department must have on its personnel lists many more than just thirteen Polish-speaking foreign service officers to meet its needs. In addition, the State Department could have thirteen available officers who speak Polish, but it may be unable to match other occupational specialty qualifications well enough to staff the thirteen LDPs in Poland.

It must be emphasized here that language is not the only requirement for LDPs. It is merely an additional requirement. The number of government jobs where language skill is the primary employment factor is extremely small. Even fluent speaking ability in a foreign language gives a prospective employee little advantage unless all other areas of expertise are equal to or above a minimal acceptable level. As will be seen in the following chapter, the same stress on professional and technical skills, as having priority over language skills, is the usual policy of business and industrial firms.

LANGUAGE TRAINING RESOURCES

As previously indicated, government agencies and the branches of military service are far ahead of private industry in recognizing the need for communication with people of other countries in their own language and have made a much greater commitment to language and cultural preparation of their personnel. The government is not claiming, as business often does, that English is the lingua franca of the world.

Not only does the establishment of LDPs indicate this priority, but the government has established much more complete, elaborate, and comprehensive training centers to provide language preparation of its employees than has business and industry in general. It has made these facilities available to its employees and, in fact, has required their use in many instances. To indicate more graphically the significance of foreign language instruction within the federal government: in 1971, approximately $60 million were appropriated and spent for government language training and research, including student salaries (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1973).

One of the most exciting and newsworthy ways in which the government has indicated its belief in communicating in an individual's native language is the Apollo-Soyuz Test Project wherein American and Russian astronauts have joined forces to give impetus to détente and to share their space expertise. According to various press releases, from the outset language was a major consideration. The crews spent more time on language training than on any other single phase of the mission. This amounted to a total of 700 out of 2,400 total training hours in the case of the American astronauts. Apollo commander Thomas P. Stafford, a native of Oklahoma had a hard time with his "drawl" and actually spent more than a thousand hours in Russian language classes.

More than a score of interpreters were involved, and NASA made large-scale use of computers for translation purposes. The spacemen were required to speak the language native to each other. It was felt that the ability of the American crewmen to talk directly with their Russian counterparts (and vice versa) without an intervening interpreter would allow them to work faster and accomplish more. Although interpreters were on hand in each control center, working directly with key personnel in case of major problems and to facilitate communication between the centers, the two-nation astronauts were able to converse in the mission vernacular enough to complete a successful mission.

The linguistic aspects of this historic space mission required more than two years of separate and joint effort. The two nations compiled a list of approximately three hundred technical expressions that a spaceman must know. The list included a number of bilingual terms developed especially for the mission and was responsible for adding many words to the dictionaries of both languages.

The intensity of the language training effort gives a dramatic indication of the importance accorded to language ability in the realm of employment within the federal government. Although this particular effort was primarily undertaken as an independent project, there are several comprehensive and permanent facilities established and funded by the U.S. government for the language training of its employees. In 1976, it is anticipated that more than sixteen thousand persons will be trained in one of these centers. Additional special training programs and contracted language training would raise this number considerably (Table 4-1).

TABLE 4-1

Projected Number of Students to Be Trained in
Foreign Languages in the United States by the Federal
Government's Regular Training Agencies
(1976)

Agency/Place	Number to Be Trained	Staff Needed
Foreign Service Institute:		
Washington, D.C.	4,135	700
Abroad	1,000	100
Defense Language Institute, east and west coasts	4,473	700
Center for English as a Second Language, Lackland Air Force Base	3,520	500
Peace Corps	3,500	500
TOTAL	16,618	2,500

The Foreign Service Institute

Perhaps the most well known of these facilities is the previously mentioned Foreign Service Institute. Its legislative authority is found in the Foreign Service Act of 1946 wherein Congress directed the establishment of a school to provide ". . . instruction to officers and employees of the government for whom training and instruction in the field of foreign relations is necessary." Training in foreign language skill was specifically included in the directive.

In 1974, 29 different departments and agencies of the federal government used FSI training facilities. They ranged from the expected State Department and United States Information Agency Foreign Service Officers to personnel as far ranging as those from the Environmental Protection Agency and from the Federal Home Loan Bank Board. According to Dr. Frith (interview), the principal business of the school is preparing these people for face-to-face communication in carrying out their roles in foreign countries. The student body of the School of Language Studies is made up of government employees who are preparing for service abroad, and includes the adult members of their families. Certain other government employees and their families are eligible to use materials and facilities of the Institute's language laboratory for self-study.

Language courses are conducted at the FSI in more than forty languages. These courses are held at the State Department facility in Rosslyn Square, Arlington, Virginia, just outside Washington, D.C., and also at the more than two hundred foreign service posts throughout the world. In addition, training in Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese is given at FSI field schools in Beirut, Taichung, and Yokohama. Classes vary in length from sixteen to twenty weeks for the "easy" languages such as those spoken in Western Europe, 24 weeks for Romanian and Swahili, 44 weeks for Russian and other Eastern European and some Asian languages (the "hard" languages), to 20 to 24 months for Arabic languages, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean (the "super-hard" languages). While assigned to the Institute, students have no other duties and spend their full time in language study. Training conducted at the embassies and consulates is customarily done on a part-time basis.

In its function as an employer of persons with foreign language skills, the School of Language Studies uses 215 foreign language instructors and twenty supervising linguists. All teaching is done by native speakers. In addition to language instruction, the personnel at the FSI produce teaching materials and are leaders in research and development of foreign language teaching methods.

An example of the increasing efficiency in language training at the Foreign Service Institute School of Language Studies was provided to our researchers from official files in the form of a chart which summarized training results of more than three thousand career ambassadors, career ministers, and foreign service officers, Ranks 1 through 8, who had received FSI training in one or more languages. Of this combined group, the percentage of foreign service officers with tested S-3 proficiency in at least one language increased from 63.8 in 1966 to 74.4 in 1972. The percentage of these officers with a proficiency of S-3 or better in more than one language increased from 23.2 in 1967 to 29.7 in 1972. Of the foreign service officers, 89.5 percent had a rating of S-2 or better in at least one language in 1972. These figures provide striking testimony of the success of the intensive training program conducted by FSI (data furnished by FSI staff).

Proficiency Ratings

Reference has been made in an earlier chapter and previously in this chapter to the proficiency rating system used by FSI. Other language training units either use the FSI rating system or something similar. It has been widely established in both government and industry that the designation "language major" is without substance in that it does not objectively indicate speaking or reading competence in a language. A language major with a degree may be rather fluent while another is barely able to make himself or herself understood.

The FSI rating system (U.S. Department of State, 1968; Weinstein, 1975, p. 20) is designed to describe in performance terms what a person is able to do with the language in a way that is much more meaningful to prospective employers, supervisors or others, than degrees, grade point averages, or other common methods. The ratings are on a scale from 0 to 5, where 0 indicates no functional ability and 5 indicates native speaking fluency or reading ability. Separate scales are used to measure speaking proficiency (the "S" ratings) and reading proficiency (the "R" ratings). In addition, numerical ratings may be assigned plus or minus status to further indicate precise ability, except for S-5 and R-5 which are considered absolute native ability.

A proficiency rating of S-3 and R-3 is considered the minimum for representational work abroad in a host country's language. In the mimeographed proficiency ratings of the State Department (November 1968), outlined below, we are told:

> The definition of each proficiency level has been worded so as to be applicable to every language; obviously, the amount of time and training required to reach a certain level will vary widely from language to language, as will the specific linguistic features. Nevertheless, a person with S-3s in both French and Chinese, for example, should have approximately equal linguistic competence in the two languages.

The proficiency ratings are as follows:

Elementary proficiency:

S-1 Must be able to satisfy routine travel needs and minimum courtesy requirements --

(a) Can ask and answer questions on familiar topics.

(b) Can understand simple questions and statements, allowing for slowed speech, repetition, or paraphrase.

(c) Speaking vocabulary inadequate to express more than the most elementary needs.

(d) Although errors in pronunciation and grammar are frequent, can be understood by a native accustomed to foreigners attempting to use the host language.

(e) Can order a simple meal, ask for shelter or lodging, ask and give simple directions, make purchases, and tell time.

R-1 Must be able to read some personal and place names, street signs, office and shop designations, numbers, and isolated words and phrases --

(a) Can recognize letters in printed version of an alphabetic system and high-frequency elements of a syllabary or a character system.

Limited working proficiency:

S-2 Must be able to satisfy routine social demands and limited work requirements --

(a) Can handle (confidently although not with facility) most social situations, including introductions and casual conversations about current events, work, family, and autobiographical information.

(b) Can handle limited work requirements, needing help only when complications or difficulties arise.

(c) Can follow most conversations on nontechnical subjects which require no specialized knowledge, and have a speaking ability sufficient to express oneself with some circumlocution.

(d) Accent, although pronounced, is intelligible.

(e) Can usually handle elementary constructions somewhat accurately, even though thorough or confident control of grammar is not present.

R-2 Must be able to read simple prose, in a form equivalent to typescript or printing, on subjects within a familiar context --

(a) With extensive use of a dictionary, can get general sense of routine business letters, international news items, or articles in technical fields within one's competence.

Minimum professional proficiency:

S-3 Must be able to speak the language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, and professional topics --

(a) Can discuss particular interests and special fields of competence with reasonable ease.

(b) Have a reasonably good comprehension for a normal rate of speech.

(c) Accent may be obviously foreign.

(d) Have good control of grammar.

(e) Errors never interfere with understanding and rarely disturb the native speaker.

R-3 Must be able to read standard newspaper items addressed to the general reader, routine correspondence, reports, and technical materials in one's special field --

(a) Can grasp the essentials of articles of the above types without using a dictionary; for accurate understanding, moderately frequent use of a dictionary is required.

(b) Has occasional difficulty with unusually complex structures and low-frequency idioms.

Full professional proficiency:

S-4 Must be able to use the language fluently and accurately on all levels normally pertinent to professional needs --

(a) Can understand and participate in any conversation within the range of one's experience with a high degree of fluency and precision of vocabulary.

(b) Would rarely be mistaken for a native speaker, but can respond appropriately even in unfamiliar situations.

(c) Errors in pronunciation and grammar are rare.

(d) Can handle informal interpreting from and into the language.

R-4 Must be able to read all styles and forms of the language pertinent to professional needs --

(a) Occasionally using a dictionary, can read moderately difficult prose readily in any area directed to the general reader, and all material in one's special field, including official and professional documents and correspondence.

(b) Can read reasonably legible handwriting with difficulty.

Native or bilingual proficiency:

S-5 Must have speaking proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native speaker --

(a) Have complete fluency in the language to the extent that one's speech on all levels is fully accepted by educated native speakers in all of its features, including breadth of vocabulary and idiom, colloquialisms, and pertinent cultural references.

R-5 Must have reading proficiency equivalent to that of an educated native --

(a) Can read extremely difficult and abstract prose, as well as highly colloquial writings and the classic literary forms of the language.

(b) With varying degrees of difficulty, can read all normal kinds of handwritten documents.

Ratings are assigned by means of interview-type techniques wherein a team consisting of a linguist and a native speaker of the tested language question a candidate in the target language. The testing team has been extensively prepared for their evaluative function. The FSI is emphatic that not only is the candidate's ability to manipulate the foreign language effectively tested, but he or she must be able to converse in depth within the chosen field.

Another extremely significant function of the Foreign Service Institute is to determine the extent of foreign language proficiency of prospective employees of the federal government for placement and promotion purposes. The FSI regularly evaluates the ability of State Department employees and foreign service applicants with language ability. In addition, it evaluates employees and applicants for other federal agencies upon the request of that agency.

Many materials, including complete instructional courses in various languages that have been developed by FSI, have been released for public use and are available through the U.S. Government Printing Office. Tapes are available from General Services Administration, National Archives and Records Service, National Audio Visual Center, Washington, D.C. (Zip 20409).

The Defense Language Institute

A second major language training facility maintained by the U.S. government is the Defense Language Institute (DLI). The major thrust of the DLI is the training of military personnel in foreign languages and related studies. DLI schools are located in the Presidio of Monterey, California, which is the government's largest language center, and to a much smaller degree in Washington, D.C. The latter operations are in the process of being phased out in favor of the California location. Also, various military commands within the Defense Department conduct their own local language training programs.

The Defense Language Institute has about seven hundred employees, of which 475 have native or near-native fluency in a foreign language and for whom, as instructors, this proficiency is a requirement of employment. Personnel at the DLI have programmed classes in 33 languages for fiscal year 1976 and expect to train a total of 4,473 students, the vast majority of which are military personnel. An indication of which languages are most important to the military and cooperating government agencies is given by the forecast of the number of people to be trained in languages at the DLI in 1976. This is a significant indicator of the national interest:

Language	Number of Trainees
Russian	1,158
German	580
Spanish	467
Korean	358
Arabic	286
Mandarin	266
Vietnamese	197
French	182
Polish	182
Czech	121
Thai	120
Italian	86
Hebrew	74
Turkish	42
Hungarian	36[2]

An additional component of the DLI is found in its English language branch located at Lackland Air Force Base, Texas. At this facility, 3,520 foreign military personnel entered English language training in fiscal 1974, and 4,350 were projected for training in fiscal '75. The primary objective of this training is to provide foreign military personnel with the English language proficiency required for entry into U.S. military technical or professional schools in the continental United States or overseas, for example, pilot training. The English language branch also conducts instructor development courses for foreign military personnel charged with giving English language training in their home countries.

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[2] Information furnished to ORC researchers from DLI informant, April 1975.

The Central Intelligence Agency

In addition to the FSI and DLI, the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) also maintains a comprehensive language training facility, the CIA Language Learning Center. The Center employs teachers, who must be native or near-native in speaking ability, and managerial linguists. Its staff is active in research into problems of foreign language teaching and in the development of language texts, tapes, and visual aids, and also in the area of proficiency testing.

Although the CIA uses the same basic format of oral proficiency testing as the FSI, it seeks evidence of a candidate's performance in several different topics within each interview and is basically oriented to probe depth in job-related topics to a slightly lesser degree than the FSI interviews. For security reasons, limited information is available about the scope of the language training program in the CIA. All areas are jealously guarded as "classified."

The U.S. Customs Service

The U.S. Customs Service operates Spanish language training schools in El Paso and San Ysidro, Texas, under a working agreement with the FSI, wherein FSI administers the program and provides all necessary textual materials. Program participants are trained in phases of full-time intensive study alternating with practice at their regular positions at border-crossing gates. There is a total of three 4-week language study phases alternating with work experience.

The Peace Corps

The Peace Corps is one of the major federal users of foreign language training programs; but its professional staff of language trainers has declined in recent years as compared to the more intense and bigger volume of activities during the first few years after the Peace Corps was initially established. Some of the training of Peace Corps volunteers is done by contract with private language schools, colleges, and universities. Since volunteers are not career bound in their position in the Peace Corps, the rigidity of method and motivation to learn languages is obviously not so apparent as in the case of a career military, diplomatic, or civil service officer.

Additional training is conducted at the site of assignment or at a single foreign site where one language is taught for volunteers destined for various countries that speak the same language. For example, a single training center specializing in Spanish located in a Central American country may train volunteers who will ultimately be assigned to various Central American or South American countries.

The Peace Corps entered into contract with Educational Testing Service (ETS) of Princeton, New Jersey, to develop a test of oral proficiency. After considerable research, ETS concluded that the oral interview system developed by FSI was the best available model and recommended its adoption. FSI then trained evaluation teams for ETS to assess Peace Corps trainees.

Miscellaneous Agency Training

Further language training is conducted on a small scale by many other government agencies, such as the Departments of Health, Education and Welfare, Commerce, and Agriculture. These agencies encourage foreign language study among their employees by organizing classes, providing facilities and faculty, and giving released time, recognition, and sometimes even financial rewards for language acquisition.

There are other specialized requirements that involve the learning of street slang, unusual expressions and idioms that are not generally included in the curricula of language institutions (such as FSI and DLI, but are necessary for such activities as intelligence operations), and law enforcement, particularly in drug trafficking, international criminal activity, and illegal immigration. Agencies deal with these needs on an ad hoc basis according to severity of need, by specialized training or supplementary training, according to the particular problems of the agency. Detailed information regarding the scope and content of such language training must, of a necessity, be classified.

INTERAGENCY COORDINATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE NEEDS AND TRAINING

In 1955, there was established an informal organization of professional language representatives from various government agencies that require foreign language training and use. Calling itself the "Interagency Language Roundtable," it perceived as its function merely to exchange information, ideas, and professional opinions on language teaching, to serve as a clearinghouse, and to update pertinent information and materials relating to activities in government agencies and their language training programs. From its inception in 1955 until late 1972, the informality of the group precluded agenda, minutes, officers, and budget. (Researchers for ORC attended several roundtable meetings, at one of which the ORC project director gave an interim report of the LWOW study. The roundtable group is described most recently in the professional literature by Dr. Frith [May 1975, p. 15].)

In 1972 the General Accounting Office conducted an investigation to determine the scope of federal involvement in foreign language training, to evaluate training programs, and to assess progress in improving foreign language skills of U.S. government representatives overseas. The results of this investigation were published in a report to the Congress (U.S. General Accounting Office, 1973). One of the major recommendations of the study was that intergovernmental coordination of foreign language training programs be improved and that a permanent committee be established to oversee this function. The recommendation fell on appreciative ears, and the Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) organized itself more formally.

The ILR established five subcommittees -- testing, general information, research, materials development, and management -- to facilitate a systematic gathering and dissemination of information on language training activities and to propose and plan coordinated actions among the participants. The committee on management is composed of representatives of the organizations specifically engaged in either language training or the use of language skills, and is the steering committee for the ILR.

Membership in the organization includes representatives from the following entities:

Foreign Service Institute	Peace Corps
U.S. Information Agency	Agency for International Development
Defense Language Institute	National Security Agency
Central Intelligence Agency	Federal Bureau of Investigation
U.S. Office of Education	Bureau of Customs
Bureau of Indian Affairs	Center for Applied Linguistics
Civil Service Commission	Drug Enforcement Administration

While still maintaining a somewhat informal posture, ILR's basic function is being a forum for the exchange of information which may produce bilateral and multilateral plans and projects within U.S. government agencies that deal with foreign language acquisition and use.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE INCENTIVE PROGRAMS

Basically, there are two types of foreign language incentive programs in use among agencies of the U.S. government, as ascertained by ORC interviewers: incentive and reward. The first deals with promotion, assignment, or in-grade increases; the second, with monetary value placed upon one's abilities and endeavors.

In the State Department, for example, while knowledge of a foreign language is not a requirement for appointment to the foreign service, after appointment, officers are expected to acquire an acceptable level of proficiency (S-3 and R-3 in an "easy" language, or S-2 and R-2 in a "hard" language) in at least one foreign language, and junior officers are limited to no more than one promotion until they do so. New officers are given language tests after they enter active duty. Those who pass a speaking and reading test in one of forty foreign languages are no longer considered on "language probation." (At that point they may, in some instances, become eligible to receive a higher salary in their officer class.)

Officers who undertake to study a targeted language and reach a proficiency of S-3 and R-3 are entitled to a maximum of three in-grade increases. Personnel officers in the foreign service feel that this incentive program is inadequate because it applies only to junior officers (grades 8, 7, and 6), and an officer must have been promoted into the mid-level grades (5, 4, and 3) within five years of entry into the foreign service or be mustered out. (Another government agency which uses this exact kind of incentive for foreign language acquisition is the National Security Agency, which requires personnel in its language area to achieve proficiency, along with other criteria, for promotion beyond the GS-12 level.)

A second type of foreign language incentive program is a direct cash reward, or yearly allowance to cover times when a qualified speaker is stationed where a language is used. The CIA, for example, provides direct cash awards according to a multi-tiered system based on both the difficulty of the language and the proficiency achieved. The State Department offers monetary incentives to encourage employees to learn certain specified esoteric languages.

The Agriculture Department's program, newly designed and approved, provides cash rewards to employees both acquiring and maintaining foreign language skills. The languages to be considered as eligible for compensation are limited to those which are required for posts within the Foreign Agricultural Service or those post languages which are not required but considered desirable. Significant is the fact that the program in this department is open to both secretaries and professionals, and to employees both in the field and in Washington, D.C.

In designing the incentive program, personnel at the Foreign Agricultural Service chose to use the FSI's proficiency levels as criteria for achievement. For professionals, the basic level of proficiency required is S-3 and R-3 in "easy" languages and S-2 and R-2 in "hard" languages. For secretaries, the levels are S-2 and R-2 for "easy" languages and S-1 plus and R-1 plus for "hard" languages. An additional $100 is allowed for two "super-hard" languages, Chinese and Japanese, because both are especially difficult for Westerners to learn and both have great importance to the operations of the Foreign Agricultural Service.

A detailed system has been devised for computing the amount of the award, with such factors as location of the employee given consideration. If individual employees are currently assigned to posts where their language is spoken, the full award is given. If they are located in the District of Columbia, or in another post, 50 percent of the full rate is awarded. The employee's award could be annual after proficiency is reached, since rewards are also presented for language maintenance. Employees may earn awards in no more than two foreign languages and are expected to undergo testing to show they have retained or improved their language competencies.

The exciting news that employees are rewarded for language proficiency is most encouraging, and is a clear indication of the significance given this skill in the conduct of the business of the U.S. government. It is to be hoped that this idea will expand to other agencies and perhaps to private business and industry as well.

PROFESSIONAL CAREERS AND JOB OPPORTUNITIES FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE-QUALIFIED PERSONNEL

There is an immense variety of positions within the federal job structure that are most efficiently filled by a person with foreign language competence. These jobs include Peace Corps service, official representation abroad, joint projects with individuals from other countries, treaty negotiations, public relations overseas, and many other activities with non-English-speaking minorities within our national borders. Most, if not all, language-related positions in the federal service, however, fall into the category of professional and administrative posts and require either a college degree or equivalent experience.

The Occupational Outlook Handbook (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975, p. 789) describes the general qualifications for this category of government employees as follows:

> Entrants into administrative and managerial occupations usually are not required to have knowledge of a specialized field, but rather must indicate that they have potential for future development by graduation from a [four-year] college or by responsible job experience. The entrant usually begins at a trainee level and learns the duties of the job after he is hired. Typical jobs in this group are budget analyst, claims examiner, purchasing officer, administrative assistant, and personnel officer.

This rather general description is reinforced by the Civil Service Commission's announcement (1975) explaining the purposes of career examinations for potential employees starting at the GS-5 to GS-7 level. The typical candidate for a federal position takes this or another specialized examination, is assigned a GS rating, and is placed on an availability list. The list is made available to federal agencies for consideration of persons listed in the order of their ratings for abilities appropriate to the positions to be filled. The bulletin is rather specific in stating that most of the positions filled through this examination do not require education or experience in a specific field. Training for the exact duties of the position is provided by the employing agency. Some types of jobs in which a language major may be interested are described in this announcement. They include customs inspectors, immigration inspectors, import specialists, personnel specialists, and passport and visa examiners. None of these positions requires knowledge of a foreign language, but it is usually helpful.

The Professional and Administrative Career Examination does not cover many of the jobs in which a language major might be interested. In addition, many of the government agencies which specifically seek persons with language skills do not use the services of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, but maintain separate systems for hiring personnel. Some of these agencies are the CIA, the FBI, and the foreign service offices of the State Department and U.S. Information Agency. Persons desiring employment with these agencies must apply through their personnel departments and meet the rather specific and strenuous requirements.

Although the examination announcement gives an optimistic outlook for a liberal arts graduate, it tempers this with a telling statement: "For positions requiring specific skills, only persons possessing the necessary qualifications will be referred." This statement gives a far more accurate picture of the actual employment situation of the U.S. government, as well as most other hiring agencies.

The entrance examination, with its resulting eligibles lists, is generally recognized to be the vehicle for filling but few of the available federal positions. Considering that "freezes" on federal hiring are frequent, supervisors hire with an eye to seeking people with the specific skills that fit the few positions for which they are permitted to hire. In general, skills in mathematics, statistics, and economics give someone interested in federal employment a substantial advantage in seeking a job. An employer looking to fill a specific position obviously selects employees on the basis of skills needed for efficient production.

The ability to speak and read a foreign language with proficiency is nearly always considered to be a secondary requirement, except for positions as an interpreter and translator, and there are few full-time posts in this specialized area in the U.S. government. Positions available as interpreters and translators require extraordinary ability in the language, far beyond that acquired in most foreign language university study programs. Moreover, specialized skill in specific subject areas is required in such positions so that a person can comprehend technical documents and render accurate translations.

The primary needs to which persons with language skill can address themselves are for job skills to fill the political, economic, administrative, military, agricultural, or other basic positions overseas. When a vacancy exists in a foreign country, personnel officers must decide whether to recruit from among persons in the local area or seek qualified persons living in the United States. Locally, personnel may be chosen from among U.S. citizens living in the area, or the dependent of a U.S. citizen stationed in the area, or a foreign national.

In most instances where the United States maintains a facility in foreign countries, agreements have been made to assure the host governments that local nationals will be employed wherever possible. Also, in federal government positions, as well as in private business, it is infinitely more expensive to import personnel, assuming responsibilities for travel costs and overseas cost-of-living allowances. Thus, it is to the economic advantage of the United States to employ foreign nationals at local pay rates. Furthermore, foreign nationals in the employ of the federal government are not subject to the competitive rules and regulations of the U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Employees of the federal government who are selected for overseas assignment are generally required to sign a transportation agreement for a specified length of time, usually 36 months, although in some cases it may be for as little as twelve to 24 months. They are generally required to be at least 21 years old and in excellent physical health. Standards of mental and emotional stability and maturity may also apply, since employees may have to live under difficult conditions and without complete medical facilities. All applicants must undergo security, character, and suitability investigations.

Salaries are usually the same as those that federal employees in the United States would receive if they occupied similar positions. Also, employees may receive a post differential or cost-of-living allowance. They may be housed in government quarters, or an allowance may be paid which covers a part of the cost of rent and utilities. In addition to the regular federal employment benefits, they may receive free travel for themselves and their dependents, free transportation or storage for their household goods, and additional paid vacations with free travel to their homes in the United States between tours of duty. Also in some areas, the U.S. government operates schools for dependents of the employees and provides educational opportunities that are comparable to those in the United States.

In general, the job market within the federal government has slowed considerably within the past few years, although there are still many positions available with hundreds of persons hired annually. Emphasis must be made again, however, that hiring is done on the basis of specific job skills. Only as an adjunct skill is language felt to be desirable. But in virtually every interview with U.S. government agencies, the person interviewed stated that if all other job skills and experience were equal, the person with a foreign language ability would get the job. The U.S. Civil Service Commission reinforces this concept, stating (February 1973, p. 4): "A foreign language capability, while not required in all, or even most, federal jobs overseas, would obviously be a valuable qualification."

There are almost no employment areas where the sole ability to manipulate a language is all that is required. In fact, additional intellectual knowledge of a foreign culture adds little to the mere ability to speak the language. Applicants to the federal service should recognize the need to acquire and use nonlanguage job skills and experience and should approach government employment prepared to state exactly what they can do, rather than stating their academic background.

CASE REPORTS ON AGENCY LANGUAGE NEEDS

The following case reports were filed in connection with interviews at the various agencies mentioned.

Department of State

The State Department is responsible for the conduct of the international relations of the United States, the formulation and execution of our foreign policy, the position of the United States within international organizations, and the advancing of our political and economic interests throughout the world.

Foreign Service

To fulfill its functions and also to provide a variety of services to individual Americans traveling or residing abroad, the State Department maintains over three hundred embassies and consulates in more than a hundred countries throughout the world. These posts are primarily filled by personnel in the foreign service of the United States. Employees fit into three categories: foreign service staff, reserve officers, and officers.

The foreign service staff, in addition to professional officers, requires many classified personnel. They are primarily secretaries, stenographers, clerks, and communications and records assistants who staff the embassies and consular posts throughout the world.

Foreign service reserve officers fill posts which require technical or professional training, such as doctors, lawyers, communications technicians, security officers, and so forth. Appointments are for limited periods of time as trained specialists are needed. Salaries are contingent upon previous experience and education.

For the person with an interest in foreign languages, most career opportunities within the State Department are to be found in the ranks of the foreign service officers. There are currently 3,200 officers, of which 85 to 90 percent speak a foreign language. Officers enter the foreign service via one of two routes: (1) they have successfully completed the competitive examination and selection process, or (2) infrequently, they are presidential appointees who have become career officers.

Applicants for the foreign service must be at least 21 years old and citizens of the United States. Regardless of age or experience, no person receives appointment for a higher level than FSO-7, for which the maximum salary is currently (1975) $13,969. Candidates must successfully pass a written examination, after which they are given an oral examination, a medical examination, a background investigation, and a final evaluation. If this entire procedure is successfully completed, the candidate's name is placed on the pertinent rank-order register, and he or she is considered for appointment in the order of his or her standing.

The Foreign Service Entrance Examination is now divided into four "cones," or basic function fields of professional concentration for which separate registers are maintained: political, economic, administrative, and consular. Applicants must specify the field which applies to them and in which they wish to be examined. Once individual candidates are admitted into the foreign service, however, they may receive assignments outside their chosen functional areas, which will permit them to become acquainted with the entire spectrum of foreign service work.

Administrative officers manage the daily business of the embassies and consular posts abroad. They deal on a day-to-day basis with both American citizens and foreign nationals in the areas of budget, maintenance, office space and supplies, personnel, communications and records, and security.

Consular officers issue visas and assist visiting American citizens with problems they may have in foreign countries. They also conduct passport and citizenship work, and are empowered to perform notarial services.

Economic officers are responsible for analyzing the developments relating to the commercial structure and economic stability of a given country or region and their effect on the United States. They may make policy recommendations and promote U.S. trade abroad, aiding U.S. businessmen with various information and services.

Political officers keep the U.S. government informed of political developments which affect our country, negotiating agreements, maintaining close contacts, recommending changes of policy, and preparing background materials to keep senior officials informed of important occurrences.

According to the "examination announcement" for the 1974 foreign service exam, all foreign service officers should be well informed regarding foreign and domestic affairs; be knowledgeable about the U.S. government, its history and culture; and be able to speak and write effectively. All officers should be interested in people and have the ability to move easily in business, government, and professional circles.

An ability to express oneself fluently is essential to the performance of foreign service work since officers must be able to explain the United States and its policies on a wide range of issues to all types of people overseas and report to Washington about foreign developments. A broad general knowledge is considered to be the best preparation for a foreign service career. The ability to speak a foreign language is not necessarily a prerequisite for employment in any State Department position, except foreign language instructors in the Foreign Service Institute. However, higher classification grades and starting salaries are offered to new officers entering with language proficiencies, and junior officers may receive only one promotion until they can demonstrate speaking and reading command of a foreign language.

Full-time language training is provided for foreign service officers at the FSI. As previously stated, prejudice remains within the foreign service that "sitting out two years in a dusty FSI room" hurts chances for promotions. However, the personnel office in the State Department has sufficient applications from foreign service officers eager to learn Russian, Chinese, and Japanese. Until recently, it had a short supply of candidates wanting to learn Arabic but now has many political officers interested in acquiring this language skill. It still needs economic and consular officers with skills in Arabic. Languages that are needed and for which they have trouble getting officers for training include Korean, Urdu, and East Indian subculture languages such as Bengali, Hindi, Amharic, and Tamil.

The State Department is interested in personnel with training in diverse areas, including economics, political science, and public or business administration. Although the majority of candidates is college graduates, applicants with professional and vocational experience in business, government, and organizations involved in international activities are welcomed. Since the foreign service officially represents the United States to other nations, a representative sampling of the American population is sought, and increasing numbers of women and minority groups are receiving appointments.

After required preparatory training in Washington, D.C., most new officers receive overseas assignments and, in fact, usually serve two of their first three tours abroad. Tours generally last for two years, but may be longer or shorter if the needs of the post so dictate. Officers and their families are expected to be available for worldwide service and will not be appointed to the foreign service if they are not willing to travel anywhere at any time.

While the actual number varies from year to year, the State Department normally appoints 150 to two hundred junior officers each year. This small number is indicative of the rigors of the entrance process. Only about 2 percent of the total number of candidates are successful in receiving appointments to the foreign service.

Language Services Division

The function of the State Department's Language Services Division is to do all translating and interpreting for the department and for the White House, and, to a limited degree, for other agencies housed in Washington, D.C. The division's personnel may be used to deal with foreign visitors, to translate materials from foreign countries, and occasionally to act as interpreters at international conferences and seminars.

The language requirements for employment in the Language Services Division are extremely stringent. Absolute fluency is required. Most of the employees of this division are American citizens, but they have attained their foreign language skills in ways other than university study. Most have lived extensively abroad, or come from foreign families born in the U.S., or are American citizens born abroad. A few are naturalized citizens. Speed in retelling and conveying ideas as well as technical accuracy of material is a prerequisite.

The total number of employees in the division, counting some temporary workers, is about sixty. These include 55 language specialists and five conference reporters. All but ten of these people are professional linguists. In addition to this staff, the division maintains contracts with twelve hundred persons living throughout the country. They are employed on a temporary basis when needed to serve as escort interpreters to accompany official visitors who might have been invited through the Fulbright Act to learn about the United States or who visit on any other official business. One interpreter accompanies such a visitor throughout an entire stay (to cut down on cultural shock and the trauma of meeting new people all of the time). The State Department pays air fare for these employees to the port of entry to pick up their visitor and per diem wages during the time they are actually employed. The reason such a large roster of translators-interpreters is kept under contract is because of the difficulty in finding persons free at the specific time they are needed. Only five to six hundred actually are employed in a given year.

Employees of the Language Services Division are all based in the United States. There are few translators and no interpreters abroad, except for local natives used for unclassified matters. Classified translating is done by foreign service officers.

The fluency of applicants for positions as Language Services Division translator-interpreters is established by tests administered by the division itself. It has created its own examination and does not use the FSI testing system. Each test, one in translating and one in interpreting, takes about one hour and is generally administered in Washington, D.C., although if enough applicants are located in a geographical area to justify the procedure, the Language Service Division will send examining teams to the site. The test is also administered in New York annually.

U.S. Information Agency

The primary mission of the U.S. Information Agency (USIA) is to support the national interests of the United States by promoting better understanding of its national objectives, and by presenting an accurate picture of American citizens as individuals and as a people emphasizing the values, institutions, and culture which have created our national philosophies. In addition, it explains to foreign populations the policies of the United States and the reasoning behind them and advises the U.S. government on the implications of foreign opinion in the formulation and execution of U.S. foreign policy.

The USIA uses several different means of achieving its missions, all of which are geared to communication with the people of other countries. One of the most important methods is personal contact. In 1975 there were 2,148 USIA foreign service language-skilled employees, many of whom serve in duty tours abroad, providing personal links with local opinion leaders. In addition, radio Voice of America broadcasts reach more than fifty million listeners weekly. USIA produced films reach an estimated audience of a hundred million annually, and the potential television audience in a hundred countries is more than eight hundred million.

USIA works extensively with the press, regularly mailing features, articles, reprints, and photos for placement in local media. Fifteen magazines in 31 languages are published by the agency, in addition to leaflets, printed exhibits, and posters. USIA is the principal designer and manager of major U.S. exhibitions abroad, including World Fairs and other important exhibits. Its personnel maintain or support libraries in 239 information centers, reading rooms, and bi-national centers in more than ninety countries. In addition, USIA sponsors direct English teaching in 111 bi-national centers, twelve U.S. Information Service (USIA's title overseas), supported language centers, and numerous USIS posts. Finally, USIA administers abroad the Cultural and Educational Exchange Program of the State Department.

Since language is the principal tool of communication, it follows that most of the 8,800 employees of the USIA should have foreign language skills. But only 2,148 positions are clearly LDPs. The ability to speak another language is essential to many posts, especially those positions in a hundred countries abroad which involve contact with local populations and those within the national borders where materials are prepared and transmitted in a foreign language. Specific job categories within the USIA where foreign language skill is either necessary or extremely helpful include the following: radio producers and announcers, television producers, writers and editors, pamphlet and magazine makeup and layout specialists, exhibit designers, and area studies specialists. In its technical programs, the agency prefers to have language competency accompanied by professional experience or university training in such fields as journalism or radio-television.

Voice of America, the agency's radio network, provides direct communication to foreign audiences, interpreting the actions and policies of the United States. It is the official voice of the U.S. government and has the largest studios, newsroom, and master control of any radio broadcast organization in America. It broadcasts 858 hours weekly in 36 languages via short and medium wave. Employees of Voice of America involved in the preparation and broadcasting areas must have complete fluency in the language of the country they cover, since they must edit and translate materials as well as create original programs. Although foreign language specialists can be involved in writing and editing without technical experience or training, applicants knowledgeable in radio or television production have an obvious advantage in seeking employment with Voice of America. There is an excess of candidates trained in the "easy" languages. Fluency in Chinese, Russian, or the Slavic languages is helpful. The agency hires native speakers for translation work with Voice of America. However, the earlier discussion in chapter 2 concerning "elitist" categories of jobs [illegible] be kept in mind in considering a career with Voice of [illegible].

One [illegible] especially interesting functions of the USIA is its support of the bi-national centers throughout the world. A bi-national center is actually a private association established in a foreign country and governed by the joint effort of the host country and resident Americans, who share program responsibility. They offer instruction in English, provide some library and study facilities, and develop programs to facilitate mutual understanding. Normally, a center derives most of its income through tuition charges for courses in English. Its employees are generally not foreign service officers, but private American citizens salaried by grant. Some supervisory and teaching positions in the bi-national centers may be provided by USIA foreign service officers and staff. Assignments are usually for two years.

The USIA has a large staff housed in Washington, D.C., which plays an important part in the cultural and educational exchange program areas and media lines, provides support in technical, professional, and administrative areas, and gives policy guidance to the overseas program.

Generally, most of the USIA overseas positions are filled by in-house foreign service officers. Typically, a foreign post has a USIA unit directed by a public affairs officer who supervises information and cultural affairs officers. Cultural affairs officers organize and direct exhibits, libraries, teaching programs, visiting artists, and other educational and cultural exchanges, maintaining contacts with universities and cultural leaders. Information officers deal with the local media, maintaining personal contacts to help distribute material pertaining to the United States.

Candidates for the USIA foreign service must participate in the same comprehensive written and oral examinations administered by the State Department for its foreign service. Applicants must indicate upon registration for the examination whether they wish to be considered for the State Department or USIA.

Candidates for the USIA foreign service must have a knowledge of American foreign policy and international relations, and of the historical, political, economic, and cultural development of the

United States. They must possess an ability to communicate effectively both orally and in writing. Foreign language skills are not required, but the Civil Service Commission announcement (1973, p. 11) makes the following statement: "A good working command of a foreign language and an ability to learn foreign languages are useful." The examination announcement for both State Department and USIA foreign service officers additionally describes the ideal candidate as follows: "USIA officers should be genuinely interested in learning the languages and cultures of other people, [such as] working with them, be politically and culturally sensitive to their environments, and [be] action-oriented." Literature published by the USIA recommends the following academic disciplines to persons interested in a career with the agency:

Political science
Area studies
Journalism
Television
Graphic arts
Education
Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) and Linguistics
Library science

International relations
American civilization
Radio
Cinematography
Industrial design
English and foreign languages
Business or public administration

In addition to foreign service officers, the USIA employs secretaries, librarians, and, on a temporary basis, many professionals -- lawyers, teachers, agricultural specialists, and so on in the category of "foreign service limited reserve officers." They may receive assignment for a maximum of five years and are eligible to apply for career status after three years in the limited reserve.

Also, USIA recruits guides to participate in exhibits in Eastern Europe, the Soviet Union, and the World Expositions. These guides must be citizens of the United States, be a minimum of 18 years old, and be fluent in the language of the host country. They must also successfully pass a background investigation and a health examination. Guides are hired for periods of from one to seven months at a Foreign Service Staff 9 rating, plus per diem and travel expenses.

By way of a generally definitive statement about the future trend with regard to the need for foreign language skills in the USIA, the agency's Language Training Division comments were summarized as follows by ORC researchers, based on interviews: Foreign language skills will always be needed in the foreign service agencies of the U.S. government. The trend is to hire the individual and train him or her in the language needed. In general, the college training is not sufficient for fluency needed for public relations work overseas. With twenty weeks of intensive training, an individual can achieve the necessary fluency in the world languages. For exotic languages, considerably more time is needed.

Agency for International Development

The Agency for International Development (AID) administers economic and technical assistance to areas of the world that are classified as "developing" countries, primarily located in Latin America, Africa, and Asia. To fill this mission, AID employs a total of 4,500 American citizens, of which some 2,677 serve in overseas assignments. Only 855 of these positions are classified as language essential and of these, about 43 percent are filled as required.

(Data reported here were gathered from AID by ORC researchers in the spring of 1975.)

The employment needs of AID are for people with a high degree of technical skill, most frequently economists, financial analysts, staff attorneys, auditors, and accountants. Foreign language skill is felt to be extremely important, but secondary to the technical and professional expertise required to perform the work of the agency, which sends groups of experts to administer long-range development loans and programs and assistance funds for grants.

In an effort to increase the percentage of qualified personnel in language essential posts, AID makes use of FSI and DLI courses and also maintains contracts with private language schools. AID personnel also are assigned to on-post language training programs conducted at the embassies and legations throughout the world. Special training is made available to personnel assigned to language essential posts. In addition, language incentive pay increases are given for language acquisition under certain specific circumstances, including careful justification of need for language and the learning of a "hard" language. The languages used by AID personnel in overseas posts are: French, Spanish, Portuguese, Bengali, Cambodian, Indonesian, Laotian, Thai, Turkish, and Vietnamese. Of the language essential posts, 89 percent require French or Spanish. Rural development advisers with a command of Korean are in great demand, but they are rare.

Hiring of personnel for AID is conducted through the regulations of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Considering the professional nature of most available positions, the majority of new employees enters the agency in mid-level or senior-level posts. They are often classified as foreign service reserve officers and serve on loan from industry, universities, or other government agencies. Most appointments are for two-year tours abroad, plus preliminary training and transportation time. The most important criterion for employment is technical education or experience.

Given these considerations for employment, many of the employees of AID are not career employees, and it is generally not considered to be a career agency. The result of this is a large turnover of personnel which, combined with AID's policy of rotating personnel on a worldwide basis, makes stable use of language proficiency especially difficult.

Intelligence and Law Enforcement Agencies

The Central Intelligence Agency is extremely interested in persons with skills in speaking, understanding, and reading a second language and uses their abilities in several different types of jobs.

One of the major functions of the CIA is the collection of information from foreign public media sources. Language officers, working in some sixty languages, peruse foreign books, magazines, and newspapers, extracting information useful to persons who analyze and make foreign policy. Information gathered by these officers gives immediate notice of significant developments in other countries and provides a basis for research or policy papers. Foreign analysts are assigned to study and analyze newspapers and reports in a specific country, group of countries, or specific topics within a country.

Typically, language officers or foreign analysts are employed for their training in area studies; in international relations, with emphasis on a particular country; or in a language with its related history and culture study. As a part of their career development, they receive further training in economics, communications or the sciences.

As previously reported, the CIA maintains a large language training facility, employs teachers who must be native or near-native speakers and have considerable teaching experience, and specialists in foreign language training. These instructors usually have advanced degrees in linguistics.

Language skill is an obvious asset to the investigatory and intelligence personnel of not only the CIA but also the FBI and the National Security Agency (NSA). For security reasons, limited information is available on employment procedures and positions in these areas. However, each of these agencies maintains its own employment division, rather than using the federal service employment service. Health, education, and background security investigations are very stringent and thorough. The languages most in demand are Middle Eastern, Far Eastern, Asian, Russian, and Slavic.

Candidates for positions as special agents in the FBI are advised that they may be considered if they have a four-year resident college degree, with a major in a physical science or fluency in a language for which the bureau has a need, or three years of professional, executive, complex investigative, or other specialized experience.

The FBI employs translators but has extremely difficult requirements for these positions. Translators for the bureau must qualify in more than one language; and in Romance, Germanic, or Slavic languages, they generally must be qualified in three or more languages. Salaries are contingent upon experience and number of languages known.

According to Clarence M. Kelly,[3] director of the FBI, the language needs of the bureau change frequently. If a need exists for a certain man's language ability at the time he applies, he is immediately given a formal preemployment interview where he is examined as to his second language fluency. If he is able to demonstrate the required language ability, he is then given another multiple-choice examination which he must also pass in order to be further considered for the position.

Department of Defense

Most of the overseas positions needed by the Defense Department are filled by transferring qualified employees currently serving at service installations in the United States. Some positions require unusual or special skills and are filled by recruitment; i.e., engineers, equipment specialists, librarians, cartographers, and so forth.

Although the Defense Department is the largest single employer of U.S. citizens abroad, most of these people are servicemen stationed for a relatively short period of time at a U.S. service installation abroad. These employees deal for the most part exclusively with other U.S. servicemen and have no need for skills in the language of the country in which they are stationed.

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[3] Personal correspondence, July 9, 1975, in the files of Olympus Research Corporation.

The majority of positions within the Defense Department requiring foreign language competence are the approximately 475 foreign language teachers at the Defense Language Institute (DLI), as previously discussed.

Department of Agriculture -- The Foreign Agricultural Service

The officers of USDA's Foreign Agricultural Service analyze and report upon production, trade, and consumption of agricultural commodities and encourage foreign markets for U.S. farm produce. They are responsible for coordinating the foreign agricultural affairs of the nation, administering international market developments and economic research, and ascertaining the impact upon the American economy of international dealings in food and food products. Personnel are generally assigned as agricultural attachés in embassies or legations in the major agricultural consuming and marketing areas of the world. USDA now employs 125 American nationals posted at some 63 overseas assignments.

The personnel department of the Foreign Agricultural Service is attuned to the need for language proficiency and, as discussed previously, Foreign Language Incentive Program won approval to use a cash award route to give employees monetary remuneration for foreign language attainment.

USDA uses several training agencies, including the FSI and private foreign language training institutions. In addition, early morning classes are given in Spanish, French, German, Portuguese, and Russian for those employees with an interest in going overseas. Classes are held for one and a half hours daily on a released-time basis.

USDA employees serving abroad are serviced entirely by the State Department's Foreign Service Institute under an administrative agreement. Payroll, benefits, allowances, and all other personnel matters are handled by State Department employees at the foreign posts. Foreign Agricultural Service officers receive area studies, orientation, and language testing at the FSI.

Applicants for employment with the Foreign Agricultural Service are considered on a competitive basis, upon completion of the Federal Service Entrance Examination and examinations for agricultural economist and agricultural marketing specialist. The most successful candidates are trained in agricultural marketing and economics.

Languages used by the Foreign Agricultural Service include Spanish, French, Portuguese, German, Russian, Italian, Japanese, Chinese, Indonesian, Arabic, and Polish.

ACTION -- Peace Corps and VISTA

The Peace Corps is one of the arms of ACTION, founded to coordinate all citizen volunteer programs administered by the federal government.

Most Peace Corps applicants volunteer their work. A relatively small administrative and supervisory staff is maintained in Washington, D.C., and overseas. The duties of these people are focused upon one of the three major regions served by the Peace Corps: Africa, Latin America, and NANEAP (North Africa, Near East, Asia, the Pacific). African specialists total 231 (32 in the District of Columbia and 199 abroad), and there are 28 Latin American specialists in Washington, D.C., and 196 overseas, for a total of 223. Thirty specialists in the NANEAP division are stationed in Washington, D.C., and 262 in the field, totaling 265. The total permanent staff for the Peace Corps numbers 746 persons (1975). They administer and supervise the activities of from 6,500 to seven thousand volunteers. A country desk officer is responsible for orientation of volunteer trainees and for liaison work between the Peace Corps and embassies or local governments. Program and training officers develop volunteer programs and train new volunteers in them. This work is done in close cooperation with the national governments of foreign countries.

The work of Peace Corps volunteers is extremely varied. They are primarily charged with sharing skills and training people in developing countries throughout the world. Volunteers must be able to relate to people of other countries while working with them.

To be a Peace Corps volunteer, one need not necessarily speak a foreign language, nor is a language aptitude test given; but it is necessary to have a skill or a college degree. The Peace Corps needs experienced persons in more than three hundred skill categories. Volunteers must be U.S. citizens, 18 years of age or older, in good health, and willing to serve overseas for at least two years. They receive twelve to fourteen weeks of training, including language study, transportation to and from their posts, a small living allowance, and all medical needs. At their assignment posts, they work for a government department, agency, or organization supervised by and working with nationals from the host country.

Volunteers in the Peace Corps are expected to learn and speak the language of the local people, immersing themselves in the local life-style to as great a degree as possible. Although they receive some language training, they generally learn the language "on the job."

Since they must work so closely with the local population, Peace Corps volunteers must learn to speak many exotic languages, including some local dialects: Thai, Korean, Farsee, Afghan, Tagalog, Nepali, Fijian, Tongan, Cebuano, Bikol. In many instances, they are the only Americans living and working as a part of local communities in their countries. They must gain credibility by their actions and the evidence of their desire to accept local customs and be accepted by the local people.

In addition to the Peace Corps, VISTA, another program coordinated under ACTION, hires some volunteers with skill in Spanish, French, or American Indian languages. It also hires some English as a second language specialists to demonstrate new language teaching techniques to foreigners who then train volunteers in their own countries. These positions are usually filled on a short-term basis for three months or less.

Department of Commerce

Employees of the Commerce Department who have a need for competence in a foreign language are primarily found in positions with the Domestic and International Business Administration (DIBA). There are several divisions within DIBA which deal specifically with international matters: the Bureau of International Commerce, the Bureau of East-West Trade, the office for international economic research and analysis, and staff offices for public affairs, for administration, and for field operations. Throughout the entire department, however, language skills are felt to be of secondary importance. Training and experience in marketing, finance, and economics are the major considerations. When all other skills and experience are equal, a candidate possessing bilingual ability will be given priority.

Of the eighteen thousand employees of DIBA, approximately eight hundred to a thousand are employed as international trade specialists or international economists. Foreign language skill is considered to be important to successful performance in these positions. If specific language skill is needed for a given position, the facilities of the FSI are used to teach the language required. In addition, language laboratory facilities are maintained within DIBA. They are equipped with tapes and textual materials, but no instructor. They are primarily used to sharpen "rusty" language skills when a person is assigned to a post overseas.

Many of the officers within the Bureau of International Commerce (BIC) have as their prime objective assistance to U.S. companies desiring to improve or expand their overseas markets. Representatives of these offices feel that ability in a foreign language represents a major asset for companies wishing to deal in international trade, although English is generally felt to be the lingua franca of business. One official of the Office of Market Planning within BIC told of a panel of eight business representatives who were asked if they needed personnel who spoke Arabic. Their reply was that in business transactions with Arabic companies, one is likely to be dealing with a graduate of the Harvard Business School but that, anyway, a command of Arabic was valuable in terms of public relations.

One interesting area of language needs within the BIC is the U.S. Trade Centers, fixed facilities abroad that hold exhibitions to introduce American products to foreign markets. These centers are located in Mexico, Paris, Stockholm, Frankfurt, the United Kingdom, Milan, Tokyo, Taiwan, Singapore, Teheran, Beirut, Moscow, and Vienna. They are manned by two U.S. employees working as a team. One is a foreign service officer and one is an employee of the Commerce Department. They are required to speak the native language in addition to possessing expertise in economics and business. Most of the other staff of these facilities are foreign natives.

The Office of International Marketing within BIC employs another special type of person with a need for foreign language skills. These employees are called "country marketing managers." They are felt to be among the most sophisticated and knowledgeable persons available concerning the economic state of the country or countries to which they are assigned. Not only are they commercially knowledgeable, they must also be able to develop action plans for their countries and be able to represent the United States officially in symposia and conferences on the international economic scene. There is a total of 29 country marketing managers serving eighty to ninety countries, assisted by staffs of country marketing specialists. The office is beginning to insist that all Latin American specialists and all European specialists (excluding Scandinavia) have language proficiency. Economic ability is still the deciding factor in employability, however.

The general attitude of the BIC was voiced by an employee of the Office of Export Development who said during an interview with an ORC researcher, "A fool in one language is a fool in another language. Hopefully, isolationism is over and the need for language will increase, but the need is still for intelligence, subject preparation, and general ability."

Positions within the Commerce Department are filled by the Civil Service Commission from applicants successfully completing the FSEE and with competence in the financial skills which are necessary.

There are also other divisions in the Commerce Department that need people with foreign language skills. The Census Bureau hires a small number of persons with language ability to serve as interviewers or as statistical advisers working overseas in connection with technical aid programs in the agricture, business industries, and field divisions. The language most in demand is Spanish for use in Puerto Rico. These employees must be trained in statistics and economics with adjunct language skills as needed.

The National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration hires some persons for overseas assignments at weather stations maintained in Puerto Rico, Mexico, Guam, and other locations. Applicants must have a background in meteorology or electronics. Language skill is thought to be desirable at a few of these posts.

The U.S. Travel Service is the national government's tourist office. Its primary function is to develop tourism by encouraging people from other countries to tour the United States. Maintaining eight regional offices abroad, the U.S. Travel Service works with local travel industries and government agencies to facilitate inbound passenger travel, carrying out extensive publicity and advertising campaigns in foreign media to stimulate interest in U.S. travel destinations. These offices are located in London, Paris, Frankfurt, Mexico City, Canada, Buenos Aires, Sydney, and Tokyo. They are manned by approximately six persons each, some of which may be foreign nationals. Administrative personnel are always U.S. citizens. Skill in the local foreign language is a prerequisite of employment for these positions.

Another function of the U.S. Travel Service is to conduct programs within the borders of the United States to facilitate travel for foreign visitors and to make them feel at home. The Office of Visitor Services has a program of accrediting recognition to hotels and motels with capability in foreign languages. A list of these hotels and motels is sent to the regional offices which make it available to foreign travel agents. The office also conducts a program of "gateway receptionists." In this program, people are stationed in the federal inspection areas of the major international airports to extend a warm welcome, to assist travelers with onward connections and with customs and immigration procedures, and to advise them on accommodations.

In the summertime, the U.S. Travel Service uses about two hundred multilingual people, 150 of whom are college students. During the year it maintains a staff of about forty such persons. Considering the dramatic increase in foreign visitors expected for the Bicentennial celebrations, increased employment possibilities are foretold in most areas of tourist services. Table 4-2 gives the U.S. Travel Service's predictions on foreign visitors expected in 1975 and '76 (as told to ORC interviewers in May 1975).

Department of the Treasury

Some positions in the Treasury Department's Foreign Claims Settlement Commission require foreign language skills as a supplement to legal training. Also, the Office of International Finance within the department hires international economists to do fiscal and financial research on conditions in other countries.

TABLE 4-2

Projections of Increased Foreign Visitors to the United States during the Bicentennial[a]

	Year	
Foreign Country	1975	1976
Canada	9,384,000	10,543,000
Mexico	2,100,000	2,500,000
Japan	350,000	1,020,000
United Kingdom	460,000	530,000
West Germany	310,000	390,000
France	175,000	205,000
All foreign nations	15,354,000	17,443,000

[a] Data supplied by the U.S. Travel Service in an interview with an ORC researcher, May 1975.

The Office of the Assistant Secretary for International Affairs assigns financial attachés to Paris, Bonn, London, Rome, Hong Kong, Tokyo, New Dehli, and Brasilia. Although some of these are language posts, on the whole the Treasury Department feels that all of its business is done in English. The director was frank in stating during an interview: "We have no interest in foreign language majors who do not possess a strong capability in international economics."

The one exception to this is the Bureau of Customs. According to Ian M. Hanna,[4] director of special language programs for the U.S.

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[4] Telephone interview, December 1975.

customs service at El Paso, Texas, positions in the customs service are basically divided into four categories: inspection, import specialists, customs control division (which includes tactical interdiction), and intelligence gathering and the investigative customs agency. In a few cases there are customs representatives assigned overseas to serve in metropolitan sites such as Paris, Tokyo, Berlin, and so on, who work as a liaison with the host country government and as an interpreter of customs legislation.

The work of most customs officers includes examining luggage of inbound tourists, assessing and collecting customs duties, checking commuter identification cards, and inspecting cars for suspected illegal items. They also inspect and assess duties on commercial import and export shipments. Foreign language is often essential to those positions and, in any case, is a helpful tool.

Approximately five years ago the customs service opened a Spanish language training school in El Paso, Texas, to give intensive training in Spanish to customs officers at all levels assigned to work the U.S.-Mexican border. The school was directed by Mr. Hanna. He reported that the intent of this school was to bring, for an intensive 160-hour course, as many officers needing language training as could be accommodated by the facilities and number of instructors available. While the school in many respects was successful, it was eventually considered that decentralizing the operation would be more advantageous by allowing more people to be trained, allowing some training to take place on a part-time basis and eliminating the requirement that many agents be away from their home bases and families for a lengthy period of time.

In 1973 the operation was started at five other locations: San Ysidro, California; Nogales, Arizona; and El Paso, Laredo, and Edinburg, Texas. Each of these centers is staffed by two native instructors. Each instructor works with a maximum of six students eight hours per day, five days a week for one month, which approximates 160 hours of class instruction. The program is supervised by Mr. Hanna, formerly a member of the FSI staff in Washington, D.C. In the past two years between seven and eight hundred persons have completed the program in one of the five centers. The course offered at each center is called a Phase I course and corresponds approximately to the student achieving the equivalent of the FSI S-1 and R-1 rating. Phases II and III are courses pursued individually by customs employees on a part-time basis at their home base under the part-time direction of a tutor. Phases II and III roughly correspond to the S-2 and R-2 and the S-3 and R-3 levels respectively.

According to Mr. Hanna large numbers of customs employees are from Spanish-speaking backgrounds. He corroborated our own statement in chapter 2 that the level of ability of these native speakers ranges from those who are truly bilingual to those who know very little of the parents' native language. Spanish-surnamed individuals are accepted into the program if they have no more beginning language skills than the average so-called "Anglo." However, other customs employees of chicano, Puerto Rican, or Cuban background often enroll in the Phase II and III programs in order to obtain some of the work-related expressions and vocabulary unique to the duties of the U.S. Customs Service.

Mr. Hanna indicated that the Treasury Department's primary justification for starting its own training program, rather than to continue using FSI on an interdepartmental basis, was so that the specific vocabulary and terminology necessary and relevant to the customs employees' work could be included in the course. FSI materials are used and supplemented by specific customs relevant instructional materials. He also indicated that the instruction is individualized. Each entrant takes the Modern Language Aptitude Test, which has a high correlation with the amount of individual progress actually attained by students during their 160-hour intensive training.

Department of Justice

The Immigration and Naturalization Service of the U.S. Department of Justice employs eight thousand persons, of which sixteen hundred immigration patrol inspectors are felt to require foreign language skill as a primary tool, with another thirteen hundred as a secondary tool. The languages primarily used by this agency are Spanish, Italian, and Chinese.

Immigration inspectors, naturalization examiners, border patrol officers, criminal investigators, and the deportation officers all profit from language ability. Interpreters are also hired for large metropolitan areas like Los Angeles and New York.

Immigration personnel are hired to conduct investigations, detect violations of the immigration laws, verify visas, and determine the qualifications of aliens to enter the country. They also function in connection with petitions for citizenship.

Also within the Justice Department, the Bureau of Narcotics and Dangerous Drugs under the Drug Enforcement Administration (DEA) employs Americans who are fluent in the language of the countries where they are stationed. In this connection one DEA official in an interview (1975) recounted a recent incident involving a drug investigation where two officers were on a surveillance detail. Knowing Spanish in this case became literally a matter of life or death when an informant warned the officers of an ambush. The officer who spoke Spanish was able to take cover immediately while the second who knew no Spanish was shot and killed before he understood the warning.

Department of Transportation

Under the Civil Aeronautics Board there exists the position of transportation industry analyst. Candidates for this position need a background in economics or business with some knowledge of international relations. Since they must do their own research on foreign programs, language is an obvious asset. Of the 57 employees of the Office for International Aviation Affairs, only two indicated a need for foreign language skills. A background in business and aviation was the outstanding requirement.

In connection with the government's overseas technical aid program in transportation, highway design, planning, construction, maintenance, and bridge engineers and specialists provide technical assistance to foreign countries. They must have experience in the administration and supervision of the operation and repair of highway equipment. Language capability is desirable as an adjunct skill.

The Far East and Asia Branch, Foreign Project Division, Department of Transportation (Federal Highway Administration) has a promising title, but uses only fifteen to twenty people with foreign language skill. In the same department, the international affairs staff of the U.S. Coast Guard states that perhaps ten of the 37,486 employees find foreign language skill useful, but not required. They clearly state that "no increase in needs is anticipated."

The Office of International Cooperation, also within the Transportation Department makes agreements with other countries regarding transportation and sends delegations abroad to exchange transportation expertise and evaluate the transportation needs of the developing countries, but still feels that it has limited needs regarding personnel with foreign language skill and does not hire on the basis of such skill.

The U.S. Patent Office

The only language essential personnel within the U.S. Patent Office are a small group of translators who are highly skilled in terms of their general language ability. They also possess knowledge of scientific or specialized terminology or have foreign language knowledge in a specialized field such as mathematics or engineering. They must be able to evaluate patents and assign them to their different categories. A scientific and technical translation service is maintained for the U.S. Patent Office itself and also for other government agencies and specific clients involved in patent cases.

Applicants for translating positions with the U.S. Patent Office must first submit the proper application (Form 171) to the Civil Service Commission to obtain a GS rating, and then make contact with the U.S. Patent Office.

Library of Congress

The Library of Congress employs a total of 4,130 persons (1975) on a full-time basis. Of this number, 635 employees use a second language or languages as a significant part of their official work. These persons are employed within the Library of Congress as follows: Processing Department, 470; Reference Department, 130; Law Library, 35. This study defined the use as more than a bibliographic use, but fairly extensive and substantive. Many of these people know and use more than one foreign language, and some of them have skills in as many as six or seven.

In addition, there are several hundred other employees, such as card filers in the Processing Department, who have and use some knowledge of a second language in their jobs.

Library of Congress employees work with a great number and variety of languages and dialects. There are, in fact, 125 languages used in the processing of Library materials. The languages most frequently used, after English, are the Romance, followed by Slavic languages.

The major functions of the Library of Congress include (1) collecting and photoduplicating the major newspapers of the world, (2) serving as a research center for Congress and a location for the registration for all claims to copyright protection for books, motion pictures, music, and other printed material. The Library also conducts research projects for the Defense Department. In many of these functions language skills are essential to read the documents and information from other countries. Most positions requiring a foreign language are at the professional level and require complete proficiency, in addition to other technical requirements for the specific job. In addition, there are foreign language requirements even for subprofessional employees in support of all Library functions, including ordering books, exchanges, and gifts, and cataloging.

The most likely places for the beginning librarian to use language skills are in areas such as subject cataloger, nondescriptive cataloger, or as a shared or cooperative librarian who works with international periodicals, books, and so forth. Reference librarians who use language extensively usually obtain their positions from within the Library system itself.

Joint Publications Research Service

The Joint Publications Research Service (JPRS) is affiliated with the CIA. It maintains a file of about a thousand free-lance translators. Some of these are professionals who work full time and others are part-time employees to whom material is sent through the mail. Of the thousand available translators, about six to seven hundred are used each year. Some are inactive because there is not enough material or because they are unavailable at the time they are needed.

The JPRS has translating capabilities in 65 languages and provides translating service to all government departments. It has no control over the flow of material but is solely a translating service, acting as a clearinghouse for government departments to translate serial and ad hoc reports. It does have some direct communication with the National Technical Information Service of the Commerce Department and sends one copy of all translated reports to the Government Printing Office.

The only material handled by the JPRS is open foreign literature, i.e., books, newspapers, magazines, economic reports, computer soft ware documentation, and scientific and technical information (not highly specialized). It maintains a worldwide subscription service to sources for which reports are made on a regular basis. The information translated is selected by departments and is often sociopolitical materials or information that benefits industry needs.

The languages most commonly used by the JPRS are Russian, Spanish, Japanese, French, Arabic, German, and Chinese. Vietnamese capability, which has been apparent in the last few years, has now somewhat faded in favor of more interest in the Arab world. The vast majority of the work of the JPRS is done in the Russian language.

Translators interested in employment with the JPRS are given an application form which tests their educational background and explores their substantive knowledge. A test in one's field is administered and work is assigned on a gradual basis until ability to produce "camera-ready copy" is evidenced.

Inter-American Foundation

The Inter-American Foundation (IAF) is a small nonprofit U.S. government corporation established by Congress to support indigenous social development efforts in Latin America and the Caribbean. Its staff is directed to review and support sound private undertakings in the fields of social and civic development and to stimulate research, innovation, and experimentation. They direct their efforts through local public or private nonprofit organizations recognized as indigenous institutions in their geographic area of emphasis. Some of these groups abroad, which work directly with the staff of the IAF, include business organizations, residents' associations, women's clubs, housing groups, youth associations, peasant leagues and federations, labor unions, students and university faculties, and so on.

The IAF maintains no permanent staff based overseas or any foreign installations of any kind. The entire staff of the Foundation functions from home base in a commercial building in Rosslyn, Virginia, just outside Washington, D.C. They may spend as much as a third of their time traveling throughout a country of their specialization surveying current and potential projects. Each staff member is assigned to work with projects in one of five geographical areas: Brazil, Central America (including Mexico and Panama), the Caribbean, southern South America, or northern South America.

The Foundation employs a total of 72 persons. Of this number, 58 are considered to use language as one of the primary tools of employment. But language ability at primary or secondary level is required for all field staff, program staff, clerical and secretarial staff, and supervisors and administrative staff. In other words, 100 percent of the employees of the IAF must have at least some degree of second language capability. The languages used by the Foundation are Spanish, Portuguese and French, with four additional Central American Indian dialects represented. In addition, all members of the staff must have life and work experience in the area. Backgrounds in area studies, economics, and social psychology are helpful. There is a trend within the Foundation to steer away from a staff of specialists and technical experts. Since the agency is rather small and there is little turnover, the Inter-American Foundation employs few new personnel annually.

Other Government Agencies

Other government agencies use small numbers of persons with foreign language skills in varied positions throughout their organization. Almost without exception, a specific job skill is required, and the persons who also have foreign language skills are given preference in employment.

The National Science Foundation, for example, has an Office of International Programs which tries to recruit all new and younger program officers with at least one foreign language in addition to their science training. They are also interested to a lesser degree in persons trained in international relations and business administration. There is a position of "program manager" whose incumbents find command of a second language to be extremely helpful. These people negotiate and administer cooperative research programs. Of the thirteen hundred employees of the NSF, thirty to forty have the ability to speak a language, other than English, with native fluency, and fifty to sixty can carry on a limited conversation.

The Energy Research and Development Administration's (ERDA) Division of International Programs advises on technical exchange agreements, makes contracts with countries for commercial agreements, and maintains liaison with countries to exchange information on energy developments and treaty-type agreements under which nuclear equipment is sold abroad. Of the 7,118 employees of ERDA, ten to fifteen people require foreign language as a significant adjunct skill. Again, the director was frank in stating that the agency does not hire people specifically for their language skills, but trains them when a need is apparent.

In the Department of the Interior's Office of International Activities, personnel form a liaison with the State Department to advise on mines, fish, geological surveys, and water resource research on an international scale. Because they deal mostly with State Department personnel rather than foreign natives, English skill is felt to be adequate.

A slightly brighter prospect for language-skilled persons is found in the Department of the Interior's National Park Service. Of its seven thousand employees, the personnel department estimates that six hundred need foreign language skill as a primary tool, fifteen hundred need it as a secondary tool, and 4,100 would find it helpful to the efficient conduct of their business. The National Park Service sees a continued need to develop language skills in languages spoken within the United States, other than English; i.e., Spanish in the Southwest and American Indian languages in the West. The following statement from a National Park Service employee tells why there is a need for training in a foreign language[5]: "Our organization is primarily involved in U.S. subcultures and with foreign visitors, particularly increasing numbers of Japanese, French, German, and so on, touring the national parks."

The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare has many offices which deal with persons who speak languages other than English. From the Division of Bilingual Education to the Elementary and Secondary Programs Division, skills in foreign languages are felt to be secondary in importance to other professional preparation.

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[5] It was stated earlier than an initial attempt was made to gather government data from a questionnaire. This instrument proved unsatisfactory and was discarded. This comment is quoted from a returned instrument during the pilot testing.

An official in the Food and Drug Administration makes this optimistic forecast[6]: "In the future, a second language may be a necessity if many of our foods, drugs, etc., are imported as they will have to comply with the federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act, and manufacturing plans for certain products must be inspected according to the law."

As a rule, one can find in virtually any government department or agency some office or division with a title that promises international or domestic non-English language involvement. Almost universally, however, when these offices are contacted with regard to their need for employees with foreign language skill, the response centers round the foremost basic need for professional skill and experience, with foreign language ability considered important only as an adjunct skill. Generally, if employees need to speak a foreign language to increase the efficient conduct of their duties, they are sent to the FSI, the DLI, or a private language school for a "crash course." As a rule, many of these offices need no more than one or two employees with foreign language capability. Sometimes such needs are only temporary.

As mentioned previously, if two candidates with equal training and experience present themselves for employment, the one with foreign language skill is given preference. In general, however, prospects are not optimistic for a foreign language major without other professional training to find employment in the federal government, except for the two major agencies -- the State Department and USIA, which deal almost exclusively with foreign countries. Even within these two agencies, expertise in other areas greatly enhances the employability of a candidate.

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[6] Interview with ORC researchers.

U.S. Mission to the United Nations

Foreign language majors often expect to find employment as a translator or interpreter. The most coveted positions are with the United Nations, where interpreters and translators work as needed for committee meetings, small conferences, and official meetings. As discussed in an earlier chapter, the most elite of this small corps are the experts in simultaneous translation who interpret for the main sessions. However, there are relatively few such positions. Competition for them is so intense as to make them virtually unattainable for the typical foreign language graduate. The degree of skill in the foreign languages is so high that it cannot be learned in a school program and requires some extended foreign residence or experience. Of the 495 language posts at the UN, only 77 are held by Americans (and there are only a handful of Americans considered to be among the top interpreters).

English translators translate into English documents relating to various aspects of UN activities, political debates, economics, social, and legal reports, international agreements, scientific and technical studies, and official correspondence. All candidates for translator posts must have a "perfect" command of one foreign language and a thorough knowledge of at least three of the organization's official languages. This linguistic capability comes from knowledge of a wide variety of fields, and candidates should have a wide general background, including some knowledge of international political developments and institutions, law, economics, and scientific or technical subjects. Candidates must pass a written examination which lasts two days. Those who are successful in the written examination are then interviewed by a Board of Examiners.

Other than interpreters, the need for persons with language skill is largely for specialized professional candidates with a concentration in economics and related fields to serve as technical assistance experts. These employees are normally required to have reached high professional standing after long experience in their fields. The UN deals with the areas of economic development, social welfare, public administration, trade and development, industrial development, and environmental problems. It also renders other technical assistance not specifically the concern of the specialized agencies. Of a total of four hundred posts in technical assistance, 261 require fluency in English, 87 fluency in French, and 52 fluency in Spanish. Occasionally a candidate is required to know Arabic (mother tongue). Other languages are not used in UN programs of technical cooperation.

These statistics point out that it is unrealistic to hope for employment at the United Nations armed with nothing more than a degree in foreign language from an American university. Unusual ability is required for the translator posts and, for other positions, extensive experience and competence in professional fields.

Domestic Use of Languages in the Government

Though not a formal part of our survey, domestic opportunities for jobs involving the use of languages is seen as an increasing need of federal, state, and local governments. As the country has become more aware of the disparity between the average American and the minority Americans in terms of social, economic, and educational opportunities, programs have been devised to serve these groups. Many of the minority groups are composed of persons who primarily do not speak English as a native language. In order to communicate effectively in serving the special needs of these populations, the demand has increased for social workers, educators, welfare administrators, and other government officials to speak the common language of these minorities. Many of these kinds of positions are filled by members of the minority groups themselves who are bilingual.

In addition to federal, state, and local official government agencies, there are quasi-governmental organizations operating under government funding or contracts such as human resources corporations, migrant councils, economic development agencies, and so on that work largely among the minority populations. In some of these agencies there are shortages of qualified personnel or there are people, already occupying positions, who could enhance their effectiveness if they were able to take a language course oriented to their work and in the language of the predominant minority population they serve.

English as a second language is another need among some minority populations. English courses are useful and fairly common, but little is done to direct these toward helping persons in their occupations or training them jointly in English and in new vocational skills in order to upgrade their employment. Recently, however, federal programs under the U.S. Office of Education and the Labor Department provide some funding possibilities for bilingual vocational training projects.

Summary of Language Needs in the Government

Of the 18,600 language essential positions identified by the government officials, the Peace Corps has almost three times more than its two runners-up. In this report, the agencies shown below sometimes have a higher figure in the narrative section than those shown in the tabulation. The narrative figures represent positions in which language is desirable but are either not authorized or not strictly essential. Technically, as explained earlier, the government agencies are supposed to classify positions in which language is required and obtain authorization for these posts to be language-designated positions (LDPs). However, it appears that there is not a strong adherence to this policy and that the needs for language and the positions in which languages are desirable exceed the 18,600 that are included in the list which follows:

Agency	LDPs
Peace Corps	7,000
U.S. Information Agency	2,148
National Park Service	2,100
Department of Justice	1,600
Foreign Service	1,100[7]
Department of Commerce	1,000
Agency for International Development	855
Journal of Publications	650
Library of Congress	635
U.S. Customs Service	613
United Nations	477[8]

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[7] Not duplicated in other departments such as USIA, AID, etc.

[8] U.S. government employees assigned to UN mission.

Department of Agriculture	125
Inter-American Affairs Agency	72
U.S. Patent Office	50
Bureau of the Census	25
Other	150
TOTAL	18,600

Note that the National Park Service indicates 2,100 positions where language would be helpful. As foreign tourism increases within the United States, this need increases. As earlier stated, the director of the National Park Service feels that seven thousand would be a more realistic figure if authorization could be obtained to add these to the LDPs.

The foreign service figure of 1,100 appears to be rather low, but there are many positions for which people are trained by the foreign service or where they are affiliated with the foreign service but are actually employed by other agencies, such as the U.S. Information Agency, the Agency for International Development, and other government bureaus that send employees abroad.

It would appear that the 18,600 figure is therefore fairly conservative and that the actual needs of the government for language positions is greater than this. Indeed, if positions in which language is helpful but not essential were added, the figure would be much higher. It should also be pointed out that, except in the case of the National Park Service, all of the positions reported here are for foreign assignments. Considerable domestic need for minority languages used in the United States is also evident, particularly in the Health, Education, and Welfare Department, but there are no data on exact number of language-required positions.

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PHASE II-b: FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

While the study was divided into two major categories -- the use of foreign language in government and in business and industry -- the preponderance of time and effort were directed toward this chapter. At the outset, it was seen that ORC researchers must define and delimit the scope of their work for this section in a realistic manner. To define potential subjects to be studied posed no problem; to determine the size of the universe statistically and to stratify the sampling scientifically proved to be more difficult.

Details on the methodology are discussed subsequently, but it should be borne in mind that in this portion of the study, a "subject company" has been defined as a business or industrial firm which uses, or plans to use soon, U.S. citizen labor in capacities other than at the level of the unskilled worker, where non-English language skill is a necessary or desirable qualification for employment. This, of course, eliminates focus on the language problems involving the employment of host country nationals so far as training them in English is concerned, a matter that tangentially enters into the study from time to time and is commented upon occasionally.

It is not a formal part of the research to describe the problem or to propose solutions to the teaching of English to non-English-speaking unskilled workers in the business and industrial sector of the study. Thus ORC has excluded unskilled labor from the study, even though this sometimes involves language problems. The supervision of the unskilled labor, however, is considered relevant to the study if it involves language other than English by a U.S. citizen employee or by a firm or corporation.

Since there was no existing list of corporations which met the previous definition, the work began by the compilation of a list of companies, businesses, firms, and industrial concerns from a variety of sources. On the whole, this list could not be considered to be a list of "subjects," because at the first compilation it was not known whether a company, firm, or industry did indeed meet the definition of a "subject." Therefore this file became the master file of what was referred to as "potential subjects." Only upon inquiry and response, could it be determined whether a "potential subject" was in fact a real subject.

Because many potential subjects who were likely to be actual subjects did not respond to initial and subsequent inquiries, it was impossible within the resources and time limitations to restructure a stratification of a sample and proceed to extrapolate conclusions from sample to total population. The study therefore became more exploratory in nature, yielding some valid quantitative data and much qualitative data. In addition to the problem just described, it was impossible to isolate the crucial variables upon which to base stratification. Because of large concentrations of companies in certain areas of more political permissiveness by a host country, or U.S. location for convenience in shipping (heavy concentration in coastal areas, for example), geographic distribution of companies was not a valid basis for sample stratification, and indeed ran the risk of biasing the sample.

Size of company (even when valid and up-to-date information was available, and often it was not) also proved to be an elusive factor since some companies with large dollar volume yearly generate relatively few jobs in which are employed U.S. citizens who use non-English language skills. Conversely, companies generating relatively small net profits, occasionally employ relatively large numbers of language-skilled personnel.

The instability of growth factors, radically changing political factors and, most of all, the worldwide economic instability during the course of the study made the research task practically unmanageable in terms of using certain survey research methods. It should be emphasized here that this study was carried out at a time when economic conditions were more unstable than they have ever been in the history of many of the subject corporations. Future projections of sales, of growth, of planning, and so on were constantly being revised or in a state of confusion. These conditions did not exist when this study was conceived, but developed during the course of carrying it out. The total effect of these economic factors for some companies was mildly disturbing and for others, it was wildly chaotic. This cannot effectively be measured or compensated for in the conclusions to this study, but will have to be considered judgmentally as indeed having had some effect on the reliability of our data. Filling out the survey questionnaire or submitting to an interview one week might have produced somewhat different results from those of the same informant had he responded a few days prior or afterward as consequences of inflation, political developments, or other factors were considered by management.

Nevertheless, despite this problem certain data have been accumulated that can be used both by the language profession and by business and industry to provide certain perspectives for future planning and decision making. These are described in summary form in chapter 1 and in detail in this chapter.

It will be recalled that the LWOW study produced an annotated bibliography on languages for the world of work, which is published separately and is also described in chapter 3. Before the findings from the original research are presented, a discussion of the salient recommendations and thinking from the point of view of industry, of language professionals, and of prospective employees with aspirations to work abroad are presented in terms of the following:

(1) General qualifications for overseas jobs

(2) Selection policies and practices of the companies

(3) Attitudes reflected in the literature of multinational corporations to language needs and cross-cultural considerations

(4) Linguistic and cross-cultural considerations for the prospective overseas employee

(5) Making an application for work overseas

Following the discussion based on the literature review, the survey groups and methodology are discussed in five categories:

(1) The major file of business and industry

(2) The *Fortune* 500 companies

(3) The export management companies

(4) The newspaper advertisements survey

(5) Domestic use of languages in business and industry

The description of survey groups and methodology is followed by a discussion and graphic portrayal of the quantitative and qualitative results that emerged from the overall study of business and industry.

LITERATURE REVIEW SUMMARY CONCERNING LANGUAGES IN BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

The overseas business position which is most frequently mentioned as requiring a second language competency from the literature survey is that of the international manager. Also mentioned frequently are the positions of marketing specialists and technicians of various categories representing the home office in a special assignment abroad. The most basic fact for a language student to recognize with respect to these and other positions is that the primary qualifications are professional career or skill training and demonstrated ability. Language skills alone may be considered by some companies to be important once the employee is stationed overseas, but these skills are not necessarily the prime consideration in the selection of employees for overseas assignment. This fact from the literature is corroborated by LWOW data gathered from business and industry.

General Qualifications for Overseas Jobs

There are a number of fairly well-established attitudes with respect to managerial and technical staffing of overseas subsidiaries. Over the years policies and practices have been modified from time to time to gain the greatest advantage for the sponsoring parent company. There was a time when overseas assignment was looked upon as undesirable. These assignments went to managers who needed further training or were considered members of the "second team." During the last few years there has been a dramatic shift in policy. Frederick A. Teague, (1968, p. 82) vice president of Booz, Allen and Hamilton, Inc., international business consultants, claimed that in 1968, "the single most common mistake made by U.S. firms is an unwillingness to commit their best people to what are among the most difficult assignments in business today." At the present time there seems to be a general consensus that in selecting an overseas manager or technician, it is wise to send the best man available. Some consultants are suggesting that the overseas post is so important that it should be filled only by top management personnel. They claim that to put a man without proven general management capability into a key spot in international operations is to greatly increase the odds against the success of the venture involved.

Legal restrictions vary from country to country, but generally only 10 percent or fewer of the employees working for an American branch or subsidiary are allowed by law to be American citizens. U.S. companies therefore must limit the number of people sent from the states in order to be "good partners." However, for good company morale they are also obliged to choose, to a certain extent, from within the company for overseas assignments. It is expensive to place a man and his family on foreign location and to keep him there for long periods of time. Moving one employee and his family may cost as much as $30,000 in addition to increased base pay, premiums, and cost of living allowance (Phatak, p. 192 citing Oxley, "What U.S. Companies Are Doing," 1972, p. 97).

Jerome Greco (1974, p. 66) gives his own list of qualifications for overseas duty as the result of a lifetime career abroad with multinational corporations. He claims the companies are looking for a hardy breed of employees with special talents. In addition to the requirements given above, he mentions that a person should have something special to offer and be willing to travel extensively, sometimes as much as 50 percent of the time in remote parts of the world and often without one's family. He also emphasizes the necessity of being familiar with one or more languages in addition to the native tongue, having the ability to make important decisions, and being able to function with the minimum amount of backup support and services available from the parent company headquarters.

Kolde (1974, p. 155) describes the international executive in this way:

> Cast in an idealized character type, the candidate for an international executive post is invariably described in some set of specifications that emphasize personality with broad intellectual horizons, attitudinal values of cultural empathy, general friendliness, patience and prudence, impeccable educational and professional credentials all topped off with immaculate health, creative resourcefulness, and respect of his peers. If his family is equally well endowed, all the better.

Kolde readily admits that the ideal person does not exist and goes on to insist that proven experience in the technical aspects of business is invariably taken into consideration before any other qualifications, although he personally believes that technical skills may be overemphasized, as seen later in his comments that are cited in relation to changing and cultural sensitivity.

One study of seventy U.S.-based companies (Business International Corporation, no date, p. 2) came up with the results shown in Table 5-1, which indicates the relative importance given the experience and technical knowledge. Another study (Gonzalez and Negandhi, 1967, p. 113) seeking data on the ideal background for an overseas career interviewed 1,161 U.S. expatriate managers in forty countries and presented the following as the "ideal background for an overseas career":

Attribute	Percent of Personality
Wife and family adaptable	20%
Leadership ability	19
Knowledge of job	14
Knowledge of language of host country	13
Well educated	13
Respect of laws and people of host country	12
Previous overseas experience	4
Desire to serve overseas	4
Miscellaneous	1
TOTAL	100%

TABLE 5-1

Criteria for Selecting Executives for Overseas Operations:
How Seventy Companies Make Selections

Criterion	Number of Times Mentioned	Percentage of Companies Citing
Experience	30	42.9%
Ability, flexibility	38	40.0
Technical knowledge of business	24	34.3
Competence, ability, past performance	24	34.3
Managerial talent	16	22.9
Language skills and ability	8	11.4
Potential	7	10.0
Interest in overseas work, executive ambition	7	10.0
Appreciation of new management, sensitivity	5	7.1
Education	4	5.7
Initiative, creativity	4	5.7
Independence	3	4.3
Communication	3	4.3
Maturity, emotional stability	2	2.9
Same criteria as for other comparable jobs	2	2.9

Source: Business International Corporation, "Compensating International Business Executives" (New York: Business International Corporation, no date), p. 2.

Note in Table 5-1 and in Gonzalez and Negandhi's tabulation the obvious extent to which technical competence and managerial skills rank higher than language ability. However, it is meaningful at this point to find that language skills do figure prominently in both studies.

Phatak (1974, p. 194) suggests various factors to be examined before one selects a national of the home country for a top management assignment in a foreign subsidiary:

(1) Technical competence: Obviously, candidates for an assignment abroad must have the technical knowledge and skills to do the job in the foreign setting. There is no reason even to consider a candidate who does not have the minimum technical competence to do the job adequately.

(2) Managerial skills: Candidates should have an understanding of the fundamental management principles, theories, and techniques. They must know how to use the science and art of management effectively in an international setting.

(3) Cultural empathy: Candidates must be sensitive to cultural differences and similarities between their own and the host country.

(4) Diplomatic skills: The foreign subsidiary manager has to be a corporate diplomat because of the many times he or she must deal with the representatives of local and national governments of the host country.

(5) Personal motives: Candidates for top management assignments abroad should have positive reasons for seeking and accepting such assignments. Individual candidates should

have a genuine interest in foreign countries, their people, and cultures. The candidates' history of what they have done in the past to prepare themselves on their own for an assignment in a foreign country is a good indicator of their good faith in seeking such an assignment. For example, have the candidates studied foreign languages, taken courses in international business, worked in the Peace Corps, or traveled and lived for long periods of time in foreign countries?

(6) Emotional stability: The emotional stability of candidates has a direct bearing on their ability to survive in another country.

(7) Family: The ability of candidates to be effective managers abroad to a large extent depends upon how happy their wives or husbands and their children are in the foreign country. Both the person and the family must be able to adjust to the new environment.

Phatak gives examples of managers who failed -- who did not complete their overseas assignments because the family could not adjust to the different environment.

Many other reasons are cited in the literature pertaining to the desirability of sending an American manager or technician to a foreign subsidiary company. The American manager is viewed as having superior technical knowledge; he or she knows the parent company's fiscal procedures and policies, and is more able to control the total operations of the foreign office in the best interests of the company.

There are reasons that foreign nationals also are used as managers. The primary advantage is their ability to work more efficiently in the language and cultural setting of their own land. There are of course some obvious disadvantages in assigning either of these types of managers.

Selection Policies and Practices

Even though a company may have planned well in advance and established a thorough-going policy for the selection of personnel most suited and trained for a specific assignment, frequent emergencies cause the selection and assignment to be made on a completely subjective basis which bypasses all of the established policies in order to get a man or woman in the field as soon as possible.

According to Booz, Allen and Hamilton, Inc. (Teague 1970, p. 189): "It appears that particularly at top management levels, the process of selecting managers remains a fundamentally judgmental, intuitive, and personal activity. . . . As a rule the best indicator of future results is past accomplishment." The selection of a person for overseas duty is made in many cases by someone who does not know the conditions there. He or she may not realize how different the job overseas is and therefore cannot be specific about the results expected, or may not know all of the variables in language and culture. Preference may be given to the person who knows thoroughly the policies and practices of the parent company, rather than to the one who is able to adjust and work best in a foreign environment. Conversely, the federal government is rather efficient in its information base regarding both working and living conditions and prospective assignees' qualifications for foreign jobs.

Attitudes of Multinational Corporations to Language and Cultural Needs

Reference has been made above to the relative importance of language competency and other qualifications in the overseas assignment. As a general background and orientation toward these attitudes it may be meaningful to recall that the traditional "melting pot" theory has prevailed so long in America that the great majority of Americans has felt no compulsion to learn other languages. Other people, especially immigrants, have been expected to learn English. A remark attributed to Theodore Roosevelt (Numberg, 1971, p. 186), labeled as "linguistic chauvinism," states a far too prevalent current-day attitude: "We have room for but one language here and that is the English language, for we intend to see that the crucible turns our people out as Americans and not as dwellers in a polyglot boarding house."

When Americans go abroad they have often carried this same attitude toward language learning. They place the burden of removing the linguistic barrier on other people. This is generally true in business overseas today. Kolde (1974, p. 147) again recognizes the importance of communication in multinational companies and feels that management's lack of linguistic capability presents the greatest challenge in international communications. He claims also that "it is no exaggeration to say that the typical American-headquartered multinational firm possesses no foreign language capability whatsoever -- all its executives and technical personnel are strictly unilingual."

A highly readable collection of business mistakes overseas is International Business Blunders (Ricks, et al., 1974), which documents more than sixty cases of business failure of serious dysfunction. While not all of these "blunders" are attributable directly to language, a good many of them are the direct result of failure to take into account foreign customs, mores, or traditions. The authors state that their study supports the idea that there be ". . . adequate cultural sensitivity on the part of decision makers." Other comments which are highly relevant to the findings of the LWOW study and which corroborate other research include (p. 77):

> ". . . uni-cultural managements making all the decisions regarding trade with, or investment in, different environments seems a high-risk strategy. Multicultural participation in the planning, decision making, execution, and evaluation stages of a project appears to be a safer procedure. Effective use of local foreign nationals would have prevented many if not most, of the blunders reported in this study, particularly at the points of cultural interface.
>
> For the home office management, some sort of cultural sensitivity training would be beneficial in understanding the foreign environments and managers with which they deal. In terms of both management development programs and university educational efforts, more time should be spent on sociology, anthropology, political science, and psychology than is at present.
>
> The importance of cultural differences also underscores the possible gains from a more decentralized organizational structure and a more fragmented approach.

The last comment appears to merge with Phatak's and Kolde's concept of the multinational corporation being "geocentric" (Phatak's term after Perlmutter) or the "cosmopolitan corporate culture," endorsed by Kolde (Phatak, p. 22; Perlmutter, pp. 11-14; Kolde, 1974, pp. 84-89).

Organizational behaviorists recognize the personality of the corporation as an entity in its own right. Phatak (p. 22) uses three terms to differentiate international corporations: "ethnocentric," "polycentric," and "geocentric." Kolde's (1974, pp. 84-89, 120, 155) terms are "ethnocentrism," "polycentrism," and (as mentioned) "cosmopolitan corporate culture" which is similar to Phatak's concept of geocentric companies (Phatak, p. 22).

An ethnocentric corporation considers its domestic approach as being superior and therefore exportable in the same form with no consideration for cultural differences (Kolde, 1974, p. 78, 84-89; Phatak, p. 22). The dangers of this attitude are described in International Business Blunders (Ricks, p. 56):

> Even though communication is a major factor in business negotiations and understanding, words do not monopolize the realm of communication. Even when language is the same, customs and mores can lead to misunderstandings that are detrimental to a business relationship.

The authors then cite a failure in a U.S.-British joint venture attributable in part at least to cultural differences between British and American executives. The point is made implicitly that adding language creates even more potentially devastating consequences to the realm of possible miscommunications, particularly where the cultural dissimilarities are more disparate than between Britains and Americans.

A polycentric corporate attitude recognizes linguistic and cultural differences and allows considerably more latitude to foreign subsidiaries to perform their own decision making and "run their own show," so to speak, in keeping with local tradition and custom. They are not necessarily bound to domestic policies and practices and are more prone to decentralization (Phatak, p. 22; Kolde, 1974, p. 120).

A healthier organizational attitude, according to Phatak, is the view that international business must be world oriented and not merely consist of a series of bilateral links between home office and each separate foreign subsidiary. In summary, he says (Phatak, pp. 22-23):

> A multinational company will not be able to acquire and deploy resources on a global bases [sic] and consequently will be unable to take the fullest advantage of its worldwide operations if an ethnocentric or polycentric attitude prevails among its executives. Only a geocentric attitude among its executives, both at the headquarters and subsidiary level, would permit a multinational company to attain its fullest potential.

Kolde (1974, p. 87) speaks of formal and informal contacts within the national business world, trade associations, conferences, and seminars as contributing to a "brotherhood of intense necessity that has fostered close fraternal relations regardless of the individual's own nationality or the domicile of his parent company." He speaks of the "successful experiences of different companies" creating ". . . the means for collective corporate learning of cross-cultural conflict resolution." Kolde then cites data from an initial study in 1966 replicated in 1972 which show substantial increase in companies: (1) contributing to information collection and dissemination; (2) participating in the development of general action modes or behavior guides; and (3) using external precedents (industrywide or some other corporate experience) as primary decision criteria. The overall result of this and other important integrative factors are summed up by Kolde (1974, p. 87):

> Imitation and standardization of decision modes and policy provisions have become quite commonplace. Inter-company differences, while always present, show a distinct tendency to decline, especially in the

> problem areas that are of general, and therefore common, concern to the majority of multinational companies. From the shared experiences has been emerging an international system of business values -- a cosmopolitan corporate culture, which might be visualized as a functionally oriented superstructure bridging the national cultures of different countries. (Emphasis in the original).

Undoubtedly conscious of the "ugly American" or "imperialist" epithets directed toward U.S. multinational corporations, Kolde (1974, p. 88) maintains that the "cosmopolitan corporate culture" in effect "diffuses enmity," and fosters identification of a company sensitive to local needs and concerns as well as the country's development:

> . . . [It] takes the firm out of isolation in reference to its external cultural relations and places it into the context of this transnational normative system, which maintains relative constancy throughout the world. If clashes between this corporate culture and any particular national culture occur, they do not expose the company as a deviant culprit, but as a member of a cosmopolitan elite against whose standards the indigenous norms do not enjoy the popular presumption of moral superiority. Instead of a righteous animosity and unreasonable condemnation of the firm, there is a real basis for a social discourse, an intercultural dialogue, that opens rational approaches for eliminating the conflicts.

With respect to the entry problem, Kolde (1974, p. 88) offers the following theory:

> . . . Operating from a base of superior knowledge and effectiveness, the multinational company, which is outwardly identified with the cosmopolitan corporate elite, can greatly contribute to the adaptation and development of indigenous value systems in favor of free initiative and enterprise, achievement orientation, and productive activity as socially desirable and morally sanctioned fundamentals of a modern society. In this context of the cosmopolitan corporate elite, the company, rather than being an intruder, can become identified with the vanguard of modernity, deserving of glamour and bestowed with institutional charisma to lead. It can, in brief, become a prime mover of indigenous change in its

> host countries' normative system; a leadership which unlike direct cultural imports would not mutilate and disrupt the intricate social systems of the different host cultures of the company but would, instead, engender growth and development through the indigenous means of those cultures toward the values essential for the effective utilization of their natural and human resources.

Kolde goes on to point out that the ". . . process of consolidating cultural differences is a difficult and slow one." The problem of a corporation's development arising in a domestic environment is that it becomes "typically culture specific." Furthermore, "top echelon executives [are] not interculturally sophisticated." Management -- in practice, in theory, and as scrutinized by research -- is culture bound because of U.S. dominance. The result is "a tendency to view as universal normative systems and patterns of behavior that a more informed scrutiny would show to be artifacts of American culture."

To counteract this built-in tendency for ethnocentrism, Kolde (1974, p. 89) suggest that deliberate steps can be taken and details four specific ones:

(1) It isn't necessary for the company to "choose to be the missionary of the parent country's cultural system."

(2) It might be "foolish to tie down the thinking and planning of the multinational corporate structure in that fashion, even if the corporation possess the power to prevail."

(3) If American norms could be "extended and applied abroad over its affiliates, other countries' norms and values" could be used to "advantage in the United States."

(4) A firm's "best interest is best served if the corporate culture represents a system of values and executive style that optimizes the effectiveness of organization across all cultures."

In summary, Kolde suggests that it is a challenge to "create a corporate culture within the hierarchy as well as horizontally among affiliates, thus creating behavioral flexibility throughout the company structure." He suggests an evolutionary model (Kolde, 1974, p. 90) of five stages which lead to "cosmopolitan corporate culture." He admits that U.S.-owned companies are mostly in a midstage and charges corporate executives with the task of providing "the momentum that will maintain the forward motion of the evolutionary process, lest that company's cultural development stagnate in an early phase and never reach its cosmopolitan goal." It is his opinion that, in increasing numbers, firms are deliberately striving to reach the higher stages.

Evidence from the ORC study, to be discussed subsequently, shows that there has been enlightenment and genuine language efforts on the part of certain corporations. Thus it would be grossly unfair to indict all multinational companies. Unfortunately, however, there is also an amount of evidence from the ORC study of retarded and backward thinking, or ignorance perhaps, of the advantages of multilingualism in business and management. But since Kolde has expressed the ORC researchers' opinions on the subject so well, his words are used in the following extensive exposition of the problem (1974, pp. 147-48):

> Nothing can be communicated [within the particular company] that is not in English. This subjects all transboundary communications of the firm to the tyranny of ignorance. It isolates the headquarters executives from the realities of affiliate companies, and retards the development of company-oriented constructive attitudes and personal loyalties among the indigenous personnel. Most companies exhibit agitated sensitivity on the language problem, but we found none that has taken decisive action to correct the deficiency in their managerial cadre. (Emphasis in the original.)
>
> A few companies are actually trying to correct the situation by subsidizing language study for executives. The typical arrangement covers the tuition and fees of an approved language program, and may also permit some company time to be used for attending the course. Both the coverage and intensity are left to the individual, and there is no concrete incentive for anyone to participate in the program. As a result, the more ambitious executives find more promising alternatives for their self-improvement endeavors.
>
> Executives who do invest enough time in language study to become proficient find themselves rewarded with reassignment to the outposts, mostly in sales or procurement, where direct communication with local nationals is a critical necessity. Too often these are dead-end jobs from which there is no access for further advancement. Thus what appears initially as a promotion may in a longer perspective turn out to have been tantamount [to] reclassification from a regular executive career path to that of a technician or limited-function specialist. All in all, progress through these programs remains invisible to this observer.
>
> A somewhat larger minority of U.S. companies seeks to remedy the language problem by employing multilingual foreign nationals to serve in crucial buffer positions between the parent company and the affiliates. This is self-deception. The multilingual foreigners are rarely endowed with any real executive authority, but serve more or less as errand boys for the headquarters people. Their contribution is limited mostly to routine communication problems. There is reason to suspect that at times they may even serve as amplifiers of the ethnocentric influences of the headquarters executives upon whom they so completely depend.
>
> The large majority of U.S.-based multinational firms seems to believe that in time the problem will

> resolve itself. Their management, taking its cues from the traditional business school curriculum, refrains from any move to face the problem.
>
> Finally, there is an indeterminable number of companies where the managerial culture puts a negative value on language knowledge. Acquisition of language facility thus becomes an impediment for an executive's international career. This kind of cultural perversion seems to derive from the chauvinistic fear that language knowledge renders one susceptible to unwanted and potentially dangerous foreign influences, which may induce the executive to "go native," that is, to lose his usefulness completely to the company. Viewed through an ethnocentric tunnel, it is better to remove such potential subversives from the seats of corporate power.

Kolde's comment regarding the employment of foreign nationals to compensate or to "remedy the language problem" is interesting in the light of the experience of the Danish firm, East Asiatic Company (Oates, 1973, p. 21), described in an earlier chapter. It should be remembered that in some instances the employment of host country nationals to high position in the foreign subsidiary is not to meet the language problem, but rather to meet legal stipulations imposed by the host government. During recent months, American multinational companies have come under increasing criticism for activities which foreign governments sometimes interpret to be intervention in their internal affairs. The chairman of the board of the East Asiatic Company makes this comment (Oates, p. 21):

> Denmark is a small country. We have no political ambitions. Nobody suspects us of political motives. We have huge local staffs in our overseas operations. In Nigeria, for example there are something like 2,500 Nigerians to 40 or 50 Danes.

The author adds this ironic statement about the board chairman. "He admits, however, that having a nucleus of Danes the company can rely on in the top posts 'means we can sleep soundly at night here in

Denmark.'" Keep in mind that the East Asiatic Company, which dates back to 1897, is one of the most successful multinational corporations, employing 40,000 persons in 53 countries. It is a company particularly noted for its rigid training and selection procedures.

Its training philosophy, however, is that of on-the-job training, supplemented by institutes and formal training after field experience. Languages and cultural knowledge are emphasized; German and English are compulsory; French, Spanish, and Portuguese are taught when necessary. Emphasis on quality proficiency in languages as well as in other disciplines is uppermost, for as pointed out by its management, an employee speaking a foreigner's language poorly may insult or alienate him rather than use the native language as an advantage, particularly where the native is more proficient in the language of the company's officers.

Perhaps Phatak or Kolde would attribute the East Asiatic Company's success to its geocentrism or cosmopolitan corporate culture rather than the low political profile of its home country. The phenomenon of pseudo adoption of language and culture has been noted not only by the East Asiatic Company, but is pointed out in Kolde's final paragraph quoted above. Also, our own Peace Corps volunteers have frequently been criticized on the same basis. But it need not be so. This is not a linguistic problem but a cultural one, and sometimes one of simple discretion errors as well, for which there are training or selection remedies.

Unfortunately, the idea of English as the world language, or at least the lingua franca of the business world, still prevails. This is even noted in the East Asiatic Company's policy of compulsory

English. As noted, a "good command of English is mandatory because all the firm's correspondence is in that language" (Oates, 1973, p. 22).

Despite the progress made with such efforts as Esperanto and other synthetic languages, English is still the best hope for a world language in the opinion of McGhee (1974, p. 6), who lists the following languages and the approximate number of people who speak them:

Language	Number in Millions
Chinese (various dialects)	700
English	300
Russian	200
Spanish	165
Hindi	165
German	100
Japanese	100
Bengali	100
Arabic	100
Portuguese	90
French	75

According to McGhee (p. 6):

> . . . Mandarin Chinese has no chance of becoming the international language. No one outside China except a few scholars would ever be willing to learn it. Russian has been mastered by many foreigners studying in Russia, but by few others. French, although it will always be widely spoken around the world among artists, intellectuals and diplomats, is the official language for only 75 million people. German, with slightly more official users and at one time widely accepted as the language of science, has made little progress as a world language. Of the rest, English has by far the best start. It has been estimated that 600 million people speak it as their primary or secondary

> language and can therefore be "reached" through English. What is more important, this number includes most of the world leaders.

Despite this great prestige which the English language now enjoys, there are a number of reasons why it is not completely satisfactory as the lingua franca of the business world. Many businessmen and industrialists do understand English; however, the majority would rather do business in their own language. As a social amenity, it may pay far greater dividends than the often overwork artificialities of the lavish expense account (Barrus, no date).

Naturally, some of the resistance to English stems from nationalistic tendencies and resentment of economic imperialism associated with the English-speaking countries. According to Kolde's studies (1974, p. 150):

> . . . [The] lack of linguistic facility remains a critical blindspot in American managerial preparedness for effective multinational communications . . . . The fact that the English language is widely taught in schools around the world cannot be expected to change the situation. Other people's knowledge of English is not a substitute for our own linguistic ability. The foreigner's knowledge of English can provide short-term relief but not a long-term solution to any U.S. company's global communication problems.

Finally, we shall rely on an earlier writing of the same author (Kolde, 1968, p. 301) to demonstrate the shift of emphasis in thinking as regards English being the lingua franca of the business world:

> . . . Even in a domestic context, communication was ranked by Chester Barnard as one of the three most important elements of management. In the international context its role is crucial. The multitude of languages, ideologies, and cultures in a multinational organization makes communication both

> difficult and hazardous. An obvious preliminary is that managers of the multilingual organization learn a common language.[1]

The basic principle of communication, so universally written about, described, decried, and demanded in any organization, but particularly in a business enterprise, is so obviously affected by the injection of one or more foreign tongues that it is absurd that its importance is so commonly overlooked. Yet the same Kolde, writing in 1968 (p. 301) says that it is essential to have, in the multinational organization, "*a common language*" (emphasis added), but then continues: "The American executive in this respect is in a preferred position as English, has, so far at least, been accepted as the common language. (This acceptance has its drawbacks, too)."

But by 1974 Kolde's position shifted from a mere recognition that English has "drawbacks" to a bold, unmistake demand for the recognition of the learning of other languages as essential in the successful international business. It is clear that in his later work Kolde does not espouse whatsoever the idea of English as the *lingua franca*.

Linguistic and Cross-Cultural Considerations for the Prospective Overseas Employee

If we but continue where we left off in quoting Professor Kolde's 1968 work (pp. 301-02) we shall make a fitting transition to the topic of cultural awareness and response for individuals:

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[1] Kolde's reference is to the classic management text: Chester I. Barnard, *The Functions of the Executive* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1954).

> But language alone does not suffice for communication. The process has many nonlinguistic expressions, gestures, and acts. . . . International executives must not only acquire linguistic skills but also become sensitive to how their acts and behavior are interpreted by people from different cultural backgrounds. The friendly slap on the shoulder by an American may insult an Indonesian; getting down to business right away with an Argentine may offend him deeply; pressing an Arab for a deadline may cost a friendship. People who work together must learn both to be sensitive to what their behavior actually communicates and to be tolerant of what is unintentionally communicated. On their capacity to anticipate and to avoid mistranslations and misinterpretations and on their tolerance for the uncustomary phrase and the peculiar accent depends the functioning of the international channels of communication.

Training of overseas assigned personnel is an oft-neglected ingredient or is only partially effective because it ignores linguistic and cultural awareness training. Kolde (1974, p. 162) points out that just as corporations have personalities that make them ethnocentric, polycentric, or cosmopolitan, so must individuals be more flexible in the foreign situation by growing toward a cosmopolitan approach. He says that executives with cultural awareness "will have developed what might be called cosmopolitan culture -- a personal analogue to the cosmopolitan company culture." Freed from the limited perspective of a single culture or nationalism, the culturally aware manager will

> . . . gain the ability to think primarily of the company (and its cosmopolitan corporate culture) for which they work, and only secondarily of their home country. Through greater cultural awareness, they gain strength for strategic decision making and implementation of corporate goals.

So strongly does Kolde envision cultural awareness as an absolutely essential part of training that he says (1974, p. 162):

> The task of preparing people to work effectively in another country is never complete unless it includes the flexibility of attitudes and skills necessary to participate in another culture. Developing behavioral adaptability, i.e., the ability to behave in a mode consistent with another culture, is very much like learning to speak a second language.

He also believes that the training should be broad because for a "real understanding of culture, we must be able to explain the social institutions, religious values and organizations, family and kinship system, and the status hierarchy of the country" (p. 163).

Phatak (1974, p. 198) puts culture and language training ahead of technical training. He says that Phase I training should be directed toward the entire family, not just the employee who is to go abroad. After Phase I, the technical aspects of the job for the employee comprise only Phase II. According to him, Phase I could include: (1) giving "orientation in the host country's customs, culture, social structure, geography, climate, food, weights and measures standards, currency, politics, government, and attitudes" toward people termed "foreigners," and (2) "teaching the executive and his family the language spoken by most people in the host country."

Already cited here are the recommendations of the authors of International Business Blunders in endorsing "cultural sensitivity" and broadening education to include more emphasis on various areas of the social sciences, such as sociology, anthropology, political science, and psychology (Ricks, et al., p. 77).

Considering the hardships and unusual circumstances alone, one might conclude that moving overseas is a huge undertaking for a man and his family. The major difficulties have to do with the attempt to duplicate the level of living standards to which one is accustomed at home in the United States. Food, schools, and housing present particularly difficult situations, calling for a high degree of adjustment and adaptation. For some Americans social life may not be satisfactory. Although they do tend to associate with middle- and upper-class people, there are often few other Americans in a foreign post, and it is difficult for them to relate to the host nationals in a meaningful way if they do not speak the language or do not know or enjoy local customs and social practices. The remoteness of the assignment may have serious effects on the family's adjustment to living abroad. One may suffer from culture shock when familiar signs and symbols are missing and a new set prevails. In spite of recent efforts of corporate management to help overseas personnel adapt, some sources report as much as a 30 percent failure on the part of U.S. transferees to positions overseas; according to Gary Lloyd,[2] director of the Business Council for International Understanding, American University, Washington, D.C.

The importance of being able to cope with culture shock has been stressed in articles by the State Department and others interested in overseas duty of military personnel. Of considerable more importance than the shock of the first few weeks in a new cultural environment is the effect in the long run which the unfamiliar circumstances may have on an individual (U.S. Civil Service Commission, 1973; U.S. Information Agency, no date).

It has been said that if a person can get through the first weeks, ingenuity and flexibility will help him or her to make it through the complete assignment. Kolde (1974, p. 160) indicates that there is considerable evidence that this is not so. He reminds us that we continue to carry our same values, customs, and beliefs with us during the second year. "Culture fatigue is not unlike 'battle fatigue,' a well-known phenomenon of warfare that grows out of a protracted period of uncertainty and anxiety in hostile and dangerous surroundings." This process obviously operates on the family as well as the international manager. In fact, the wife or husband of the appointee may be the person most likely to be affected seriously by this phenomenon.

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[2] Personal interview, January 1975.

With reference to intercultural communications, Kolde says that one of the most important elements leading to the acceptance of an international manager by foreigners is business know-how. Rapid and easy acceptance by one's professional peers greatly speeds the process of fitting into the new circumstances. Of equal importance is the effect that technical competence has upon one's own self-esteem and self-confidence. But he insightfully observes (p. 158):

> One must be wary, however, of placing too much emphasis on the possession or acquisition of technical skills. While these are a necessary condition for successful managerial performance in the international sphere, they are not sufficient condition for success. Research on the effectiveness of technical aid missions to the developing countries has demonstrated that dissatisfaction with an expatriate's performance seldom comes from lack of technical expertise. The major source of failure is intercultural contrasts and attendant interpersonal skills. The major barriers to task accomplishment arise from the problems of communicating ideas and having them accepted and put into practice by the foreign host nationals, be they businessmen, bureaucrats, or peasants.

Kolde's remarks are highly supportive to the idea of languages for the world of work, particularly where training is not limited to languages but includes cultural training. It must be noted, however, that in general other sources and the LWOW study respondents placed much higher priority on technical training.

Opinions vary about the relative importance of language proficiency. Some believe that one of our greatest strategic deficiencies is ignorance of foreign languages. Others say that where the Americans fail abroad is generally not in technical skills but in human relations. The U.S. Chamber of Commerce pamphlet (1971, p. 4) comments upon the fact that an American overseas not only represents his or her company but also the United States:

> Will the employee fit into the cultural, linguistic and economic climate, and will he prove adaptable enough to stick it out? Is the individual stable enough to withstand the frequent hardships, lack of association with other Americans and often the personal strains which are likely to crop up at a lonely post?

These considerations would seem to indicate that, whereas language and cultural adaptation skills are secondary considerations in selecting an employee for an overseas assignment, they become extremely important influences in a person's ability to accomplish the task successfully. Kolde's observation in this regard is (1974, p. 161):

> In some cases too much glamour is connected with international assignments which may lead to greater than necessary volunteer rosters. However, if the preconditioning program is properly constructed, it should quickly demonstrate that the overseas assignments are not intended for vacation and that people without serious interest and aptitude will find them overly demanding and frustrating.

There are psychological tests available to determine ethnocentricity and attitudes toward other cultures and people. Obviously, they are not being used in selecting overseas personnel. However, a strongly ethnocentric and culturally sophisticated person should be able to detect these characteristics in himself or herself and therefore be able through self-selection to avoid a situation in which he or she will not be comfortable or productive.

Nash reports his study of a group of Americans and their various efforts to adapt to working and living conditions in Barcel[illegible] Spain. Some were not successful in accomplishing their assig[illegible]d task or mission. Others adapted very well. One American, referred to as Mr. S., was extremely successful in this respect. The following is a summary of the factors which made it possible (1970, p. 4):

> First he entered into the foreign greeting and established friends there . . . a course which was essential for successful adaptation by an American in the city undoubtedly. S.'s penetration of the host society was facilitated by his readiness to learn and use both of the host languages. Second, S. was a Jew who came from a subculture which provided him with certain transitional qualities for this particular foreign setting. Third, he was young and flexible. Fourth, he moved into an established business with which he was familiar and in which he believed. Add the stabilizing influence of kinship and we approach the optimum conditions for successful adaptation in the city.

In an attempt to compensate the overseas employee for the hardships, most multinational companies have a series of extra allowances. In a recent study of overseas compensation practices of U.S. firms, Howard (1974) reports that multinational companies pay a premium in addition to the base pay. In some cases the base pay is higher overseas. The premium is generally in the 10 to

15 percent range and in some cases can go as high as 20 percent. These kinds of premiums are usually restricted to top and middle managers, although in some cases they are received by other supervisory personnel.

Most companies also have a cost of living allowance, usually based on the State Department Index, which varies according to the location of one's assignment. In addition, there are profitsharing plans comparable to, but in some cases higher than, those in effect for home-based personnel. Fringe benefits and educational allowances are given by the majority of the companies, and in addition there is a language allowance for the executive and his or her family. Home leave is handled in a number of different ways with slight variations, such as one month to eight weeks every two years, or two to three weeks every year.

Conspicuously absent from the compensations given overseas personnel is any allowance for intercultural communications training. In light of the many references to the desirability of complete communication capability, this seems to indicate a significant discrepancy between what is considered necessary and what is actually provided.

In his study of compensation, Howard reports that a majority of the responding multinational companies has a language allowance for overseas personnel. Of these companies, 63 percent cover languages expenses for the executive and spouse, 14 percent for the entire family, and 10 percent for the executive only; 8 percent of the companies do not give a language training allowance. The typical arrangement covers the tuition and fees of an approved language program and may even permit some company time to be used for attending the course. It is significant to point out the inherent weakness of the type of language preparation being received by many overseas executives: Too much is expected of the "crash" course.

While some multinational company officers may be convinced of the necessity of learning to deal with their associates overseas in their native language, it is obvious that the typical overseas business executive is not really expected to possess a high or even adequate language competency at the time of assignment. It is interesting that, for the most part, when reference is made to the problems of adjustment to living conditions abroad, there is general agreement that language and cross-cultural skills are important. How much greater success the companies might have if they made an all-out effort to staff their overseas subsidiaries with personnel competent in these two areas is a matter that awaits further experimentation, research, and evaluation.

Making an Application for Work Overseas

The policies and practices of selecting an overseas employee shed some light on the situation faced by a language major as he or she goes job seeking. This is not intended to discourage the foreign language major as now trained from seeking employment with business or industry. It merely points out some of the prerequisites now being sought by the employers.

It may be useful to give here the case study found in the bulletin of the U.S. Chamber of Commerce (1971, p. 9) of a graduate student seeking employment. It reports:

> A young man, a college graduate, who surveyed the field of employment in foreign trade in a comprehensive manner, made his findings available to us . . . . Individually typed letters were sent to 178 private concerns, American firms known to be doing business abroad. To this letter he attached a data sheet enumerating his education and work history, together with a photograph of himself. Both the letter and the data sheet were brief, but in each case he requested the privilege of an interview.
>
> He received 135 replies, or about 76 percent response. All replies were most cordial, and only six of them were form letters. Of the 135, 123 offered no opportunities. Twelve were somewhat favorable in that they offered an interview and two of them arranged to give aptitude tests designed to meet their specific requirements. The result was that he accepted employment with a large company in a trainee sales capacity with the possibility, although no promise, of ultimate foreign assignment.

The bulletin then states (p. 10) that the above case seems to bear out advice often given by employment counselors:

(1) That recent graduates should bear in mind the significance of timing in making their contacts, as companies usually begin their student training early in the summer.

(2) That it is generally advisable for an applicant to take any suitable job with a given company having foreign trade interests. After becoming thoroughly familiar with the company's operations, he might then be allowed to take an assignment abroad. He should, in such cases, keep the personnel department of the company aware of his interest in the foreign field in case opportunities arise.

(3) That making contacts leading to overseas employment takes a great deal of effort and hard work on the part of the applicant. If he is sincere, the effort should be rewarding.

It then adds: "the opportunity today for young Americans to study or travel or work abroad is great and becoming greater."

Local chambers of commerce can be helpful, for they very often have manuals and directories with up-dated information. The applicant should also look for trade directories in the public library and ask the librarian for pamphlets or other printed material about the employment of Americans by U.S. firms abroad.

To generalize regarding the profile of an American business executive overseas, one can say that these are typical characteristics:

(1) Highly motivated to work overseas

(2) Wants to live overseas for something other than glamorous, frivolous reasons

(3) Possesses a high degree of skill in professional training and abilities

(4) Has an impressive track record of combined formal education and experience

(5) Has family support and flexibility to adjust to a foreign residence

(6) Is able to adjust to unusual circumstances, is flexible and tolerant

(7) Has cultural empathy (this implies not just knowing cognitively the differences between one's own and the target culture but having a feeling for people, their attributes, problems, whims, customs, mores, values, beliefs, and aspirations)

(8) Has the ability to communicate linguistically and cross-culturally so that one can cope with cultural shock and cultural fatigue and avoid offending others and associating with them well enough to get the job done (Accomplishing the work mission is, after all, the most vital consideration.)

If the list seems long it should be indicative of the fact that not everyone should accept an assignment abroad. The types of characteristics listed above are not universally available in applicants for overseas assignments. Self-selection principles ought to indicate to a person whether it would be advisable to undertake this overseas experience for oneself and family.

SURVEY GROUPS AND METHODOLOGY

According to the original proposal, the LWOW study was initially intended to survey government agencies and business and industrial firms. The actual universe definition of "subjects" to which this section of the report pertains is any business or industry which has a current need to employ, will have a need to employ, or is actually employing persons with foreign language skills as an adjunct to task performance. Or, as stated more formally at the beginning of this chapter, a subject is defined as a business or industrial firm which uses or will soon use U.S. citizen labor in capacities other than at the level of the unskilled worker, where non-English-speaking language skill is a necessary or desirable qualification for employment.

This definition is broad enough to cover the field and serves also to eliminate those businesses which do not employ persons with a foreign language skill that might be useful or germane to the performance of their job. In practical situations this would include two broad categories of the business sector: first, industries whose operations are entirely within the borders of the United States but which employ persons with a language skill other than English, which condition would require foreign language skills above the level of unskilled labor. The second broad category is comprised of those firms which employ U.S. nationals both within and outside the United States whose jobs require language as an adjunct skill in the exportation or importation of goods and services and interface with the non-English-speaking world.

Major File of Business and Industry

There is, of course, no way to predict or to know the size of the total universe, or even the subuniverses defined above; nor was it the purpose of this study to determine the size of that universe. Rather, ORC's purposes were to enlarge our overall understanding and attempt to approximate to a relative degree the demand for persons with second language skills and the degree of proficiency required of workers with such skills.

ORC researchers had to assume that the size of the universe with which we were dealing was infinite. Therefore the first step in the survey, so far as the business sector was concerned, was to compile a master list of potential subjects as defined by the study. These lists were obtained from the following sources:

(1) Lists of businesses and industries doing international trade which were purchased or borrowed from sources who serve those businesses, many of which, while giving cooperation to the researchers, declined to permit identification or give specific indication of size, information contained, and so forth, in order to protect their lists from competitors.

(2) Ray Shaw's book How to Find Those Great Overseas Jobs, a paperback trade publication listing business firms who do business overseas.

(3) In-house personal contact files from the Business Council for International Understanding (BCIU). This is an extensive list of BCIU contacts of individuals who have expressed an interest in language and cultural training for their personnel. (BCIU is associated with the American University, Washington, D.C.)

(4) Two works of Juvenal Angel --

(a) Directory of American Firms Operating in Foreign Countries, completely revised, contains recent data on more than 3,500 American corporations which control and operate over sixteen hundred foreign business enterprises, with a total value of more than $125 billion.

(b) Multinational Firms Operating Overseas (1974 edition), contains an alphabetical listing of about 4,500 corporations operating overseas. Names and addresses in the United States, presidents and those in charge of foreign operations, when known, are included. It also gives names of products or services, and countries where branches, subsidiaries, or affiliates are located.

(5) Miscellaneous sources obtained either through personal knowledge or from reference of staff.

All firms identified above were logged in a card file system with a separate card for each firm. The card was then used as a reference with which to compile additional information from Standard and Poor's Directory of U.S. Firms. Information gathered from this source was composed of dollar volume of sales, number of employees, and type of product or service, where this information was available.

The card file system was prepared by manual entries, later to be converted into a master file. The manual card file system was used to prepare first mailings, to log responses, to select a nonrespondent sample for follow-up, and for general reference by the staff during the initial phase of the study.

At the outset, the goal was to establish a master file of five thousand "potential" subjects. In this, ORC researchers were more than successful, compiling a register of 5,871 businesses or industrial firms which, due to the sources from which the data were obtained, stood a better than average chance of qualifying as actual "subjects"; i.e., companies employing individuals for whom it was either necessary or desirable to have language skills other than in English, at levels higher than unskilled workers.

The option of initially surveying the firms strictly to distinguish between "actual" and "potential" subjects was rejected because, even though the list of 5,871 firms was not comprehensive or in any way could be construed to constitute an entire population (even if it had been possible to divide them into the "actual" or "potential" category), doing so still would not have been a basis for sampling. Keeping in mind the exploratory goals of the study and attempting to economize on the number of contacts and mailings, the project directors determined to mail the developed survey instrument to each of the 5,871 firms, instructing them not to return it if it did not apply to their firms. This was done in the early fall of 1974.

In January 1975, a second mailing of the same instrument, plus a reminder letter, was made to each of the potential subjects who had not yet responded. Eventually, 231 firms were weeded out as being unlocatable, out of business, and so forth. This narrowed the file of potential subjects to 5,460. Of these, three hundred were chosen at random (after the first mailing) and interviewed by telephone or in person by field workers. An additional three hundred nonrespondents (after the second mailing) were similarly studied. No systematic or significant bias from the two samplings of the nonrespondents was detected. Most of the nonrespondents turned out to be "non-subjects," according to the definition. A normal number turned out to be "true subjects"; their data, which were obtained by interview rather than by written responses to the survey, were added to the file of respondents. Altogether, data for four categories of respondents were tallied:

(1) Responses received by mail after the first mailing (the "written #1 Group")

(2) Responses from oral interviews after sufficient time to respond to the first mailing had elapsed (the "Oral #1 Group")

(3) Responses received by mail after the second mailing (the "Written #2 Group")

(4) Responses from oral interviews after sufficient time to respond to the second mailing had elapsed (the "Oral #2 Group")

Comparison of the data from the four different groups shows no notable differences. On certain portions of the questionnaire, for example (using Kendall's index of concordance), running tests between and among various combinations of groups, the lowest concordance was 0.9400 (perfect concordance being 1.000). Because of the high similarity of response, therefore, in this report data from the above four groups are shown as an aggregate of the four groups, and the aggregate is referred to as the "major file" of business and industry.

In May 1974, the Fortune 500 list (pp. 230-57) was published. Since these large corporations were likely to have international divisions, ORC determined to survey those that had not been included in the original survey and thus were not included in the major file (discussed in detail below).

In all, the major file yielded information on 1,261 firms, or 22.36 percent of the 5,640 firms determined to be valid firms in the United States. However, as will be seen in the figures that follow, not all of the respondents answered each item; thus the 22.36 percent figure does not apply at all times. In the following sections, tallies from the questionnaires show the responses of (1) the major file, (2) the Fortune 500, and (3) the export management companies.

Fortune 500

As indicated earlier, the Fortune 500 list of the largest industrial firms was studied separately. Where a Fortune 500 company had already responded in the earlier set of 1,261 firms, it was not surveyed again. However, it was flagged in the major file so that all Fortune 500 companies could be identified, studied, and analyzed as a separate group. The results of the Fortune 500 group are reported in tabular and narrative form. Eventually, data were acquired on all of these corporations. Some submitted data by company divisions or subsidiaries, nonduplicative of other data, so that the file on Fortune 500 firms totaled 562, a 112.4 percent return. These additional divisions or subsidiaries are treated discretely in the analysis later on.

Export Management Companies

In the area of foreign trade a large number of companies are based in the United States which work both overseas and within the United States and are known as export management companies (EMCs). During our survey of government, a representative of the U.S. Department of Commerce made us aware of the potential value of studying this group separately. Also, many of the businesses and companies contacted during the survey process indicated that they had no need for personnel with foreign language skills as all of their export dealings were taken care of by an international agent or an export management company. These are the professional middlemen who make indirect exporting under certain circumstances efficient and practical. An EMC is an independent firm. It may act in a number of relationships with a company or companies, serving as their export department or agent or as the principal who takes title to the exporter's goods and services and sells them to a foreign company.

The export-import operations naturally involve extensive travel overseas; however, according to the U.S. Department of Commerce, a great deal of the work in foreign trade is done within the United States. A directory of export management companies is issued periodically by the United States Department of Commerce. Information in the following paragraph is extracted from the current EMC Directory.

EMC's are extremely important to the American firm that wishes to begin or expand its exporting but does not have the know-how, the physical facilities, or the resources to staff an export department. They can act as the export department to such a firm, taking over the majority of the export responsibilities and measuring the potential of the overseas market. They may act, in fact, as the export department for several manufacturers of non-competitive products. The products may or may not be related. They solicit, locate, and transact business in the name of the manufacturers they represent for a commission, salary, or retainer plus commission. Many EMCs also carry the financing for export sales, assuring immediate payment for the manufacturer's products. They develop sales through established overseas offices, distributors, dealers, and agents, and by sales trips and personal contact with overseas customers. They may be called on to evaluate the effectiveness of an existing export program or to recommend the most profitable method of selling abroad.

Among the services performed by export management companies which lend themselves to adjunct language skills are the following:

(1) Research of foreign markets for their client's products
(2) Extensive overseas travel to seek out markets and determine the best methods of distributing the product
(3) Appointment of distributors or commission representatives (who frequently are foreign nationals)
(4) Participation in exhibiting the exporter's product at international trade shows such as those given by the U.S. Department of Commerce and U.S. Trade Centers and Fairs around the world
(5) Conducting correspondence in the necessary foreign language
(6) Arrangement for financing sales, thereby relieving the manufacturer of credit risk

EMCs often set up a reserve for bad debts. They may book orders in the manufacturers' name. In many cases, EMCs do their own financing. They pay the manufacturer in dollars before the export order leaves the United States. Then they resell the product abroad. Another method of operation is for the EMC to provide the manufacturer with sufficient credit information on the foreign buyer so that the manufacturer can make a decision whether to assume the credit risk.

Under a commission arrangement, the EMC is the manufacturer's exclusive sales representative overseas. He charges a commission for his services. The manufacturer invoices the customer directly and carries any financing required by the overseas buyer.

EMCs assist in developing advertising and sales literature in cooperation with the manufacturer, and adapting it to overseas requirements for use in personal contacts with buyers abroad. They ascertain that products being shipped are suitable for local conditions and meet overseas legal and trade requirements, including labeling, packaging, purity, electrical characteristics, and so on.

EMCs handle shipping arrangements and documentation. This service involves freight bookings, insurance coverage and claims, preparation of export documents, export and import licenses, bills of lading, drafts, consular documents, and certificates of origin. Also, the EMC may save his clients money by consolidating shipments. He can ship thousands of dollars worth of products from several clients destined for a single location, thereby saving by consolidating these orders at the port and shipping them on one ocean bill of lading.

Where import barriers, transportation charges, or local competition makes the effective promotion and sale of the manufacturer's goods impractical or impossible, the EMC will frequently arrange for the local production of the manufacturer's products under either a joint venture or a royalty-yielding license arrangement with the U.S. manufacturer. The EMC normally supervises the implementation of such contracts and monitors performance in behalf of the U.S. manufacturer.

Some EMCs also arrange for overseas demonstrations and proper technical indoctrination of foreign users or representatives, either by representatives of the EMCs or the manufacturer's technical staff.

Export development services include export seminars, graphics, trade shows, trade directories, and technical assistance required to determine the export potentials of almost any product.

In short, employees of export management companies take full responsibility for the export end of a business, relieving the manufacturer of all details except filling orders.

In 1972, the United States Chamber of Commerce was selected as the Washington adminstrative office for the National Federation of Export Management Companies. Richard O. Lehmann, executive secretary of this organization, described the EMCs as "businesses for managing the international sales of companies too small to maintain their own export division." He indicated that there is a self-limiting factor, since once exports reach a certain level a client is likely to build a division and take on its own export management. He felt that export management companies had a great need for staff with foreign language skills. As many of the companies are very small, the executives do a great deal of traveling to seek foreign marketing outlets. One problem experienced by EMCs is that of maintaining adequate foreign language skill, especially in the smaller companies, since they lack resources for training. Mr. Lehmann noted a distinct paradox in the upswing of interest in and requirement for foreign language skill and the downswing in obligatory foreign language study in colleges.

There are between 800 to 1500 EMCs in the United States. Most are located in the larger seaport or inland lakeport cities. Some are in other major cities and in small manufacturing centers. EMCs come in all sizes. Some handle export sales for as few as four or five manufacturers. Others handle as many as 40 or 50 clients. Many EMCs are overseas marketing specialists in specific fields. One may handle only commercial refrigeration and air-conditioning equipment; another specializes in books and educational materials. A smaller number of EMCs handle diversified products.

Some large EMCs employ many people, but by far the majority are small concerns which employ three to ten persons. While literally all of the services performed by EMCs would certainly benefit from adjunct foreign language skills, the companies themselves generally indicate a limited need to recruit for such expertise. Many EMCs are staffed by individuals who have lived extensively abroad and have business contacts there, resulting either from service with the U.S. Government or from other types of prior career positions.

While management representatives of EMCs indicate some interest in persons fluent in exotic languages, they generally look first for those who have business and economic skills and experience. Thus, EMCs should be considered to be a good potential employment field for foreign language majors only if the applicants also have highly developed skills in some aspect of foreign trade.

Our survey of export management companies was limited to those listed in the directory for April 1975. This directory lists

669 companies. Responses were received from 589 EMCs or 88 percent of the total. As in the case of the major file companies and the *Fortune* 500 companies, the EMCs are reported in this chapter as a separate aggregate group.

Because of the differing nature of the EMCs, there has been no attempt to integrate all three data bases (major file, *Fortune* 500, and EMCs) into a combined category.

Survey Results for Business/Industry (Major) File, Fortune 500 Companies, and Export Management Companies

The results of the survey are presented in tabular form, followed by commentary or explanation wherever necessary. In retrospect, the survey instrument was not as powerful as it could have been. As explained previously, one of the problems inherent to the study was the inability to determine the precise size and nature of the population universe. This made it impossible to generate a scientific sampling method from which to make reasonable assumptions and generalizations. Nevertheless, considerable useful information was acquired. First, we will present the quantifiable data. That will be followed by a narrative summary of open-ended comments which represent the most significant qualitative findings of the study.

Table 5-2 summarizes the number of surveys attempted, the number and percent of responses, and the responses to items one and two of the survey. Item one of the survey was: "Please indicate the total number of employees in your organization." Item two was: "Please indicate the approximate number of U.S.

TABLE 5-2

Profile of Business and Industry Surveyed

	Business and Industry		Fortune 500		Export Management Companies	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Potential companies surveyed	5,640		500		669	
Number of responses	1,261		562*		589	
Percent of response		22.36%		112.4%		88.0%
Total employees reported	7,084,383		4,791,887		19,185	
U.S. employees requiring language as:						
a) Primary tool	1,000	.14	6,313	.13	214	1.12
b) Secondary tool	11,751	.17	5,131	.11	231	1.20
c) Not required but useful	34,651	.49	18,763	.39	210	1.09
d) Other	4,267	.06	1,549	.03	18	.09
e) Total employees reported as needing or desirable to have language training:	60,678		31,756		673	

*Some Fortune 500 single companies responded by divisions or subsidiaries, thus giving more than 100 percent sample return.

citizens you employ for whom skill in a second language is (a) required as a primary tool; (b) required as a secondary tool; (c) not required but useful; and (d) other, please comment." The respondents were not asked to distinguish between international and domestic divisions. As a consequence, they reported a relatively high number of total employees. When this figure is used as the basis for determining the percent of the total employees who need or could use language in one of the four categories mentioned in item two, the total percentage is less than 1 percent in each category. It should be noted, however, that the tabulations show a substantial number of foreign-language positions in each category so that less than 1 percent is still a sizable number in a total of more than seven million employees.

Table 5-3 shows the tally for each of the three categories of subjects. This indicates that 60,678 employee positions from the major file of business and industry require some degree of language skill. It is highly speculative to attempt to extrapolate from the sample of 1,261 corporate respondents to determine how many other language-desirable positions are included among companies which did not respond. However, if the non-responding companies average the same number of employees as the responding companies (5,618 per company), and if the percentage of positions requiring language skill is the same for non-respondents as for respondents, then the total number of language-desirable positions is 209,113 plus 60,678, or 269,791 positions for our major file total of 5,640 companies.

TABLE 5-3

Hiring Practices of Business and Industry by Proficiency Levels

Proficiency Levels of Language Skilled Persons	Business and Industry	Fortune 500	Export-Management Companies
Native fluency	74,726	63,452	169
Limited conversation	61,187	43,030	48
Write	65,571	51,529	31
Read and understand	63,046	43,555	42
Translate	5,734	874	32
Other	5,446	25	7

As mentioned, this is a highly speculative figure, since some non-respondents may have no language-desirable positions and some respondents may have an unusually high number of such positions. However, follow-up interviews among non-respondents failed to detect any systematic bias, and a number of the 1,261 respondents did indicate no language needs and were counted in the tabulation even though they reported zero language-desirable positions. Thus, this type of speculation is not entirely without foundation. Even though the interpolated figure of 269,791 language-desirable positions is likely to be an inflated figure, it does seem fairly safe to suppose that more than 150,000 employee positions in our major file list of companies require some language proficiency.

The same table (Table 5-3) indicates proficiency levels. In this case figures are higher than those in Table 5-2, because in that instance respondents were asked to count only employees who were U.S. citizens. For the data in Table 5-3, the pertinent question (Item three) was: "Approximately how many people does your organization hire in each of the following categories of ability in a language other than English? (a) ability to speak with native fluency; (b) ability to carry on a limited conversation; (c) ability to write; (d) ability to read and understand; (e) ability to translate; (f) other, please comment." Responses in more than one category were common, indicating that a person with ability to speak with native fluency and ability to write might be counted in both categories.

An analysis of "Other, Please Comment" responses associated with questionnaire items two and three gave the following tabulations:

Comment	Number
Policy of using host country nationals	15
Have occasional or temporary need for languages other than English	10
Have no need for languages	35
Languages would be advantageous but are not necessary or required	28
Have need, not being fulfilled adequately	11
Have need, partially being fulfilled at present time	8
Have need adequately being fulfilled	8
Number of language required positions in company unknown	14
Only English is necessary	13
Company uses translators when necessary	6
Company has small number of staff who know foreign languages; all language problems referred to them	20
See future need as being crucial; not presently needed	4
All employees in company or division must know a foreign language	14
Professional skills are more important than language skills	10

(The items above are merely a syntheses of what was interpreted to be the essential meaning of the comments.)

Some of the other significant comments made in connection with items two and three were as follows:

Job qualifications are primary. Language is secondary.

Language is not required but is useful in Texas sales work.

Our company has 30 bilingual chemists.

We have bilingual research scientists.

It doesn't hurt to have a language. We have a man in Central America who doesn't speak a foreign language. It is a problem.

It would be nice for hundreds of cabin attendants, but is in no way required or necessary.

Good for public relations, but not essential.

In the southwest and New York areas employees are found who are Spanish-English bilingual. Also have employees for sales in Spanish-speaking areas of the U.S.

The important thing is knowledge of the business.

We employ some (approximately 25-50) Mexican Americans who speak primarily Spanish. Persons in supervision should be able to speak Spanish and English.

We have very few with language skills since we can't find them. Therefore we "force" overseas customers to speak English to understand us (which is not the best way to start off negotiations).

Question number four of the survey asked: "To what extent does a foreign language skill affect salary increases in your organization?" Three possible answers were provided: (a) less important than other factors; (b) about equal with other factors; and (3) more important than other factors. (See Table 5-4.) The fact that fewer than 10 percent of the respondents reward employees for language proficiency is somewhat discouraging in terms of motivating language learning. (Such proficiency is rewarded in U.S. government service, as has been discussed earlier. Perhaps business and industry would be more prone to reward language learning if it utilized

TABLE 5-4

Foreign Language as it Affects Salary Increases

Group	Responses	Less Effect		Equal Effect		More Effect	
		Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Business/Industry	634	409	65%	187	29%	38	6%
Fortune 500	160	96	60%	48	30%	16	11%
Export-Management Companies	96	61	64%	26	27%	9	10%

a language skill rating system on a regular basis as does the U.S. Government.) As has been mentioned, technical skill and language skill will generally favor a prospective employee competing against another applicant with technical skills alone, but it does not appear that this fact weighs very heavily in the majority of companies as far as salary increases are concerned. However, if language and cultural understanding contribute to the overall efficiency or good performance of an employee, this fact then means that language skill does indirectly influence pay raises. According to some of the international business experts cited earlier managers without language skills and cultural empathy fail more frequently in their foreign assignments than do those who have such skills. Given other strong endorsements by the business experts cited earlier, we believe that the figures taken at face value do represent the actual policies of U.S. corporations. But the intangible value added by language skill to a person's performance may have considerably more influence on pay raises than personnel managers of companies realize and more than the statistics cited here indicate.

Table 5-5 is based on item five of the questionnaire, which reads: "Rank in order from 1 to 10 (1 = the most important) the languages needed by your employees at present. Use an X to indicate a language not used." Languages listed for rating were Spanish, Portuguese, Italian, French, Japanese, Arabic, German, Chinese, Russian, Indonesian, Other. Noteworthy is the fact that the Fortune 500 companies rated Portuguese and Italian higher than

TABLE 5-5

Relative Importance of Various Languages as Perceived by Business/Industry

Business/Industry				Fortune 500				Export-Management Companies			
Language	Number	Percent	Average Ranking*	Language	Number	Percent	Average Ranking*	Language	Number	Percent	Average Ranking*
Spanish	561	44%	2.0	Spanish	136	24%	1.6	Spanish	151	26%	1.3
French	419	33	3.0	French	99	18	2.9	French	98	17	2.2
German	354	28	3.3	Portuguese	75	13	3.2	German	71	12	2.5
Portuguese	290	23	3.9	Italian	69	12	3.9	Japanese	26	4	1.9
Italian	286	23	4.6	German	68	12	3.3	Portuguese	21	4	2.7
Japanese	259	21	4.4	Japanese	47	8	4.2	Chinese	18	3	1.8
Arabic	159	13	5.6	Arabic	31	6	5.5	Other	11	2	2.5
Russian	127	10	6.5	Russian	27	5	6.3	Italian	11	2	3.3
Chinese	121	10	6.2	Indonesian	25	4	6.2	Russian	8	1	2.5
Indonesian	106	8	6.5	Chinese	22	4	6.7	Arabic	7	1	2.1
Other	58	5	3.9	Other	9	2	2.2	Indonesian	0	0	0

*Respondents ranked languages according to perceived and future needs on a 1 to 5 scale. 1 = most needed.

German, a somewhat surprising finding. Comments indicate considerable interest in future expansion in Brazil, which tends to account for the higher ranking of Portuguese. It is also apparent that in considering South America as a whole, some companies utilize personnel in Spanish-speaking countries as well as in Brazil, hence it is helpful to know both Spanish and Portuguese.

"Other" languages entered in response to the open-ended portion of the item, were Flemish, Polish, Ukranian, Finnish, Tawainese, Dutch, Tagalog, Kenyan, Swedish, Malaysian, Hindi, Swahili, Vietnamese, Farsi, Greek, Turkish, Yugoslav, Korean, Uhrdu, Native American (Indian), Hebrew, Armenian, Serbian, Slovenian, Slavic-Croatian, Navaho, Zulu, Ethiopian, Basque, Bengali, Samoan, Thai, Swahili, Latin, Lithuanian, Lebanese, Danish, Mandarin Chinese, and Haka.

Item s[illegible] on the questionnaire provided the information for Table 5-6[illegible]t appeared as follows: "Listed below are a number of methods a company could use in meeting its needs for second language skills. Please indicate the methods most used by your company to satisfy its need for second language skills." Categories provided for check-off included: hire native speakers, hire people with formal language training, provide in-house training, utilize commercial language school, and "other." Respondents representing companies using more than one method so indicated by checking all that applied. The high utilization of native speakers is not unexpected. Certain legal stipulations of host country arrangements often require a minimal number of native speakers. As indicated

TABLE 5-6

Methods Used by Business and Industrial Firms to Meet Language Needs

	Business/ Industry		Fortune 500		Export Management Companies	
Number of responses	613		156		106	
Hire native speakers	393	64.11%	89	57.05%	79	74.53%
Formal training	308	50.25%	84	53.85%	69	65.09%
In-house training	105	17.13%	28	17.95%	5	4.72%
Commercial school	287	46.82%	97	62.18%	6	5.66%
Other	33	5.38%	7	4.49%	0	0

in the literature search, companies often prefer finding an English-speaking native to training or hiring a foreign language skilled U.S. citizen. Approximately half of the respondents in business and industry (including both the major file and the Fortune 500) indicated that they recruit people with formal language training. Little in-house training is done, but considerable reliance is placed on commercial language schools. The answers from EMCs tended to differ in many instances from other business and industrial organizations. This should not be surprising considering the unique role of the EMCs.

In 36 instances, respondents wrote in that they used outside services such as export management companies or that they hired translators. Other methods for meeting language needs included university courses, tutoring, night school, use of bilingual Americans, telephone language courses, private lessons, individual study with audio cassette courses, travel, and "pairing" employees with natives.

The point has been made in relation to the government that much language training is of a remedial nature. That is, the students have studied languages in school or college, but are not prepared to use the language without considerably more training. Undoubtedly some of the language training paid for in one way or another by companies is also "remedial" in this sense. It will be recalled that the government spent in excess of $60 million for this type of effort in 1971. The investment in foreign language instruction in elementary, junior high, senior high, colleges and universities, plus the investment in language training by private corporations, is enormous. Again the question is raised, could public school and university training be up-graded and re-directed to save a substantial portion of this outlay? It would seem so if language training were targeted more closely to actual language use, and if colleges and universities, particularly, made their language curriculum job-specific and highly intensive.

Item seven appeared as follows in the survey instrument: "In which of the following job classifications are foreign language skills useful in your organization but in short supply? Please indicate in order of scarcity from 1 to 5 (1 = most scarce)." Categories were: managerial/administrative; supervisory; clerical; secretarial; and skilled/semiskilled. Results in this area indicate the perceived need is most critical in the managerial/administrative category (See Table 5-7). This finding correlates with item eight in which respondents were asked to identify areas in which foreign language might best be combined with another major. As will be seen, administration/management was the most frequently checked item in that portion of the questionnaire.

Questionnaire item eight read: "Which of the following fields would best combine with a college foreign language major or native speaking proficiency to improve likelihood of employment in your organization? Check all that apply." The categories were the same as those which appear in Tables 5-8, 5-9, and 5-10, although the categories were in a different order on the questionnaire. The categories have been re-ordered in the tables to reflect the

TABLE 5-7

Job Classifications Requiring Foreign Language and Degree of Shortages as Perceived by Business and Industrial Firms

	Business/Industry			Fortune 500			Export/Mgt. Company		
	Number	Percent	Average Ranking*	Number	Percent	Average Ranking*	Number	Percent	Average Ranking*
Firms responding:	409			76			31		
Managerial/adm.	381	93.15%	2.0	75	98.68%	1.7	25	80.65%	2.2
Supervisory	298	72.86	2.2	55	72.37	2.1	18	58.06	1.4
Clerical/ secretarial	297	72.62	2.8	53	69.74	2.9	7	22.58	2.0
Skilled/semi-skilled	207	50.61	3.2	36	47.37	3.4	3	9.68	2.7

*Ranked on a 1 to 5 scale. 1 = most scarce.

TABLE 5-8

Business/Industry Ratings of College Majors Best Combined with Language Skills*

Category	Number	Percent
Business adm./mgt.	423	71.69%
Marketing/sales	373	63.22
Engineering	283	47.97
Secretarial skills	223	37.80
Finance	180	30.51
International relations	179	30.34
Accounting	163	27.63
Economics	111	18.81
Clerical skills	102	17.29
Communications	90	15.25
Law	87	14.75
Public relations	76	12.88
Advertising	66	11.19
Data processing	60	10.17
Engl. lang. skills	58	9.83
Others	42	7.12
Civil eng.	40	6.78
Journalism	32	5.42
Area studies	30	5.08
Statistics	30	5.08
Psychology	29	4.92
Library skills	29	4.92
Cultural studies	19	3.22
Public admin.	16	2.71
Sociology	16	2.71
Political science	13	2.20
Fine arts	7	1.19

*Companies responding to one or more items: 590; Kendall's coefficient of concordance among subgroups: 0.9400

TABLE 5-9

Fortune 500 Ratings of College Majors Best Combined with Language Skills*

Category	Number	Percent
Business adm./mgt.	104	72.22%
Marketing/sales	94	65.28
Engineering	81	56.25
Finance	57	39.58
Accounting	53	36.81
Secretarial skills	53	36.81
International relations	41	28.47
Economics	31	21.53
Clerical skills	22	15.28
Data processing	21	14.58
Law	19	13.19
Advertising	16	11.11
Communications	12	8.33
Library skills	12	8.33
Civil eng.	11	7.64
Statistics	11	7.64
Journalism	10	6.94
Public relations	10	6.94
Eng. lang. skills	9	6.25
Others	8	5.56
Psychology	8	5.56
Area studies	5	3.47
Sociology	5	3.47
Cultural studies	4	2.78
Political science	4	2.78
Fine arts	3	2.08
Public admin.	3	2.08

*Companies responding to one or more items: 144; Kendall's coefficient of concordance between above rankings and export management companies: 0.8422

TABLE 5-10

Export Management Companies' Ratings of College Majors Best Combined with Language Skills*

Category	Number	Percent
Marketing/sales	117	74.05%
Business adm./mgt.	81	51.27
Secretarial skills	60	37.97
International relations	47	29.75
Accounting	41	25.95
Finance	37	23.42
Engineering	34	21.52
Engl. lang. skills	27	17.09
Economics	26	16.46
Public relations	24	15.19
Others	21	13.29
Clerical skills	21	13.29
Communications	20	12.66
Advertising	15	9.49
Cultural studies	14	8.86
Area studies	11	6.96
Law	11	6.96
Psychology	11	6.96
Political science	11	6.96
Sociology	11	6.96
Journalism	8	5.06
Civil eng.	7	5.06
Fine arts	4	2.53
Data processing	4	2.53
Statistics	4	2.53
Library skills	3	1.90
Public admin.	1	.63

*Companies responding to one or more items: 158; Kendall's Coefficient of concordance between above rankings and Fortune 500 companies: 0.8422 ranking of respondents. Table 5-8 applies to the major file of business and industry respondents. Table 5-9 represents the responses from the Fortune 500 group. Table 5-10 summarizes the EMC responses.

As a point of interest, the ranking of categories from the Fortune 500 respondents is compared below to the rankings of similar categories of demand provided by the American School of International Management (ASIM). The American School of Management (frequently called "Thunderbird" because of its location on a former Air Force training facility near Phoenix, Arizona) has a long and successful background in preparing students for overseas employment. This preparation includes language training. It appears that the ASIM rankings, which represent their curriculum areas of priority and concentration, are not too far from the perceptions of the Fortune 500 respondents.

LWOW Study Rankings; Fortune 500 Group	ASIM Rankings
1. Business Administration/Management	1. Marketing
2. Marketing/Sales	2. Finance
3. Engineering	3. Business Management
4. Finance	4. Advertising
5. Accounting	5. Governmental Operations
6. Secretarial Skills	6. Welfare Services
7. International Relations	7. Technical Assistance to Developing Areas

The rank ordering of the LWOW study was checked internally against various subgroups to determine the degree of concordance. Kendall's coefficient of concordance was utilized and indicated a very high degree of concordance between subgroups of the total respondents.

The coefficient of concordance between the subgroups comprising the Business/Industry master file is .9400. The four subgroups on which this coefficient is based are: (1) those responding to the first written survey, (2) those responding to the oral survey after the first written survey, (3) those not responding to the first written survey but responding to oral follow-up survey, and (4) those not responding to either written survey but responding to the oral follow-up survey after the second mailing. A perfect correlation would be 1.000, so it is seen that all four groups tended to rate these categories similarly. The .8422 coefficient between EMC respondents as a subgroup and the Fortune 500 respondents as a subgroup is also relatively high. Correlations computed but not shown in the tables never fell below .8422, indicating a high degree of inter-rater reliability as regards ranking the list of professional training areas in terms of their importance to cross training with languages.

Apparently some of the respondents thought in terms of specific courses rather than fields of specialization. The following comments were written in to add to the list of fields identified by item eight: industrial relations, manufacturing, scientific research, geology, geophysics, international traffic, agriculture, aviation, nautical sciences, parks and recreation management, electronics, international trade and commerce, field mechanics, personnel administration, chemistry, chemical engineering, sewing and pattern making, supervision, education, textiles management, credit management, curriculum development, editorial training, Bible and theology, claims settlement, forestry, economic geography, econometrics, auto mechanics, medical supplies, business letter writing (mentioned frequently), mechanical engineering, mathematics, export management, banking, marine insurance, international taxation, carpentry, truck driving, liberal arts, broadcasting, medical and paramedical disciplines, construction engineering, purchasing, life sciences, biochemistry, pharmacology, and mining engineering.

At this point in the questionnaire, several respondents commented to the effect that language ability is not a substitute for comprehensive technical or professional training. As one respondent put it: "We hire relatively few recent college graduates. A person who just has language ability is of no value at all to us." These comments were similar to others entered at various points throughout the questionnaires.

Qualitative Assessment and Report of Significant Comments

The need for language skills in business and industry has not been reported in terms of language designated positions as has been the case for the government and the military. Neither have business and industry attempted to establish centralized language training facilities. Both of these factors are indicative of the attitude of business and industry toward the importance of language capabilities within the various companies. The LWOW study elicited frequent reference to the effect that a company did not need second language proficiency because it dealt with an international agent who marketed its products overseas.

It is true that many businesses are able to function at home and abroad without either hiring those with language skills or providing training to meet foreign language requirements. Nevertheless, depending on the nature of the company's products and its marketing procedures, varying degrees of need exist for language proficiency. According to data gathered during this study, it is clear that attitudes toward language capabilities are changing. A number of multinational companies now recognize the importance of dealing with customers in their own language, and some are planning ahead to meet demands for foreign language competency. The sectors of business which are most likely to express a need for foreign language capabilities include data processing, manufacturing, construction, large banks, transportation, travel, extractive industries (petroleum and mining), export-import, publishing, and advertising.

Business organizations have tried different approaches to meet their own language training needs, with varying degrees of success. One rather large multinational firm (18,000 employees) commented that: "Our managers have apparently not gained a great deal of language facility from the two-week course at a commercial language school. We plan to offer language training at the foreign post from now on." Others also commented on the inadequacies of the "crash" course lasting only a few weeks, saying that such courses provide only token language ability and do not result in functional language skill. One well known commercial language school was singled out by name several times as respondents indicated great dissatisfaction with language training offered by that particular school.

Some companies with in-house language training programs would like in-depth evaluations of the effectiveness of such training, as is the case with one of the large international banks.

An engineering construction firm reported that it took the initiative in organizing a class in Arabic for engineers and their families assigned to Saudi Arabia. However, employees were apparently not sufficiently motivated for that type of training; classes were discontinued after a few sessions due to a lack of attendance.

An electronic equipment company with 1,100 employees is representative of American companies which bring in employees from abroad and try to "get by" on the expertise built up over the years without any advanced planning or in-house training. This company states:

> We operate the world over with a small headquarter staff in California that consists of about 30 people, some half dozen of whom are bilingual. Most of these six are transfers from our overseas offices. The overseas force are nationals or third country nationals who are bi- or tri-lingual, mostly electronic engineers. This force is managed by some 10 U.S. expatriates who have had extensive corporate experience in the U.S.A. and have demonstrated top managerial ability. Foreign language ability is not required by these 10. Most do, however, study and pick up conversational abilities in the countries where they are assigned.

Many of the multinational companies do not place language ability and cultural empathy high on the list of prerequisites for overseas assignment, but they recognize that those skills will be important to job performance overseas. As confirmation of this tendency, the comment of an executive of a heating and cooling company with 96,000 employees world-wide is cited:

> I expect that the importance of language ability will be recognized more in the future and that it will be required after rather than as a prerequisite for employment. Job skills continue to be more important than language skills and we will teach or have taught competent managers we currently employ rather than hiring from outside to fill a need.

A chemical engineering company, experiencing disappointment in the ability of some of its top management personnel to acquire the required language skills, has made a study of language aptitude tests and has concluded that: "Unless one has had some experience in learning a second language it may be very difficult to determine beforehand what his chances for success are. It is very risky to send an older person to a language school if he has not had previous language study."

Of interest to this study was the voluntary comment by many respondents to the effect that their company did not need any foreign language competency because "English is the lingua franca of the business world." The number of companies responding in this manner indicates a marked tendency on the part of U.S. business firms towards this sort of linguistic chauvinism.

Several corporations reported that they needed foreign languages "for public relations purposes only," indicating that in the natural course of day-to-day business transactions abroad the nature of the work did not require any language other than English. This may be an example of downgrading the importance of public relations in business affairs. It leads one to wonder what effect this type of orientation must inevitably have on long range growth. In the final analysis, public relations may prove to be not just an important component but the most vital factor in ultimate success, as some of the international business literature suggests.

A precision tool company explained that it had adopted a policy of doing business in English in Europe because it was impossible to find salesmen who knew enough languages. "If it were possible to send out a representative who spoke fourteen languages then it would be practical to think of doing business in the native language of our customers."

A large credit corporation with over 26,000 employees worldwide reports that: "We do little business in Russia, and in Europe we can get by without a language. Asian languages are of no value to us because they are so diversified. One would have to know many dialects to operate effectively in the language."

An extraordinary number of respondents reported that they handle their language needs by dealing through an international agent. In many cases these agents are the export management corporations discussed previously. These EMCs do depend heavily on their knowledge of foreign languages and in their expertise in handling all of the operations of international trade.

A large number of the companies reported that they depend on foreign nationals to handle their foreign language needs. Even so, these foreign nationals need training in the business operations of the U.S.-based firm. Some language competency is necessary in order to conduct the training. "Because the world is rapidly shrinking," says one spokesman, "we need more multilingual skills to teach personnel in other nations our skills. They (local nationals) are in the best position to understand all of the mores, customs, traditions, and leverages to most swiftly reach our goals."

One electronic corporation which hires 54,000 people worldwide states that:

> . . . local nationals run the entire operation in their own country, all the way up to the very top management and come here (to the United States) to sit in on board meetings. Thus there is very little traveling there and no real need for the foreign language to be spoken, as no one can enter any management or supervisory position there without fluency in English.

This appears to be complete abandonment of the responsibility for communication to the foreign national. The same company does concede, however, that for the last two years it has published the annual stock report and other written reports in French, German, and Spanish in order that the foreign personnel and investors might "feel more comfortable reading the report in their own tongue."

A small firm in Texas provides insight into another aspect of misguided linguistic chauvinism. Responding to the questionnaire regarding language needs, this company states: "We will not hire or sell to unamerican [sic] ; therefore we find that English is quiet [sic] sufficient." Other respondents were somewhat suspicious of the survey and were careful to point out that they were already hiring their quota of minorities and foreign language speakers.

Some companies who deal with technical equipment claim that the terminology of their business is naturally limited to the English language. A typical response from a corporation whose business involves sophisticated electronic equipment is that the research, development, and manufacture of these materials have largely been the product of English speaking countries. As a result, people of other nations have had to learn English to keep abreast of the latest developments.

Another respondent explained that for many years immediately after World War II the technology of most major world industries emanated from the United States. Advances in steel making, automobile manufacturing, electronics, glass products, rubber goods, and plastics were coming primarily from the United States and were being disseminated in the English language to European consumers. Now the dominance of the United States in many industries has subsided, and many technological advances are coming from other directions.

To what extent can it be said that English is sufficient and that it does qualify as the lingua franca of a company's business world? The answer to that question depends on the nature of the company's operations and on the type of interaction an employee may have with local nationals. For some employees, English may suffice as far as the day-to-day operations are concerned, but other considerations may also be important. One of the largest and most successful U.S. companies operating in the mid-east today adopted the policy that it would leave as good an impression as possible in the host country. The president went on record that he and all the top management personnel would learn the local language. Obviously, public relations was high on his priority list.

Notable in the responses from many multinational corporations were comments to the effect that certain areas of the world generally resist doing business in English. Among those most prominently mentioned were France, Latin America, and certain areas of Eastern Europe, including Russia. One corporation executive said: " . . . we will not be able to impose English on South American countries. They may well become like French Canada where one really needs to speak French."

Doing business in the local language can be a distinct advantage to U.S. companies, especially if they must compete with other companies furnishing comparable products and services. A director of the international division of a San Diego based corporation commented about the effects of continued growth in foreign trade: "We need to have employees with more language skills. We must be in a position to compete with our foreign competitors on an equal basis and the more skill we have in the area of language the better off we'll be to take care of these opportunities."

The representative of another multinational corporation with 79,000 employees worldwide responded:

> As a U.S.-based multinational company we should become more sensitive to the cultures of other peoples. The easiest way to do so is to insist on a reasonable degree of non-English proficiency in representatives sent to other cultures. It is my hope that within the next decade of doing business in the Middle East, Europe, South America, our personnel would have at least a basic conversational ability of at least one

> romance language. This would enhance our image a great deal. Our language club is going in that direction. We have empathy towards foreign language speakers.

As is also true for government agencies, business and industry are dissatisfied with our schools and universities and the language training they offer students. However, business and industry as a whole are not as acutely aware of the need for intensive training; nor do they devote their resources or their attention to this problem. Two of the largest American multinational corporations, whose names are household words in scores of countries as well as in the U.S., merely returned the survey uncompleted with letters explaining their positions. One indicated that English was the most important language, and on that basis the respondent declined to participate in the survey. The other said that the project "appears to be a most worthwhile endeavor," but the respondent declined to support the project by completing the questionnaire. Other responses revealed similarly narrow attitudes about the "superiority" of English and its total sufficiency as a communication tool in operations outside the United States.

According to the literature and according to studies performed by international business experts, these attitudes are detrimental to the overall operating potential of American businesses abroad. In addition, our own study produced comments, case studies, and data from a number of highly enlightened company officials who reported unusual success in profits, in public relations, and in total operations which they attributed directly to the attention given language and cultural training by their companies. A few typical comments follow.

The personnel manager of a well known firm said:

> I will offer . . . a purely personal view . . . . American managers involved in overseas activities should no longer blithely assume that we can force our language on other nationals, that language learning is a one-way street -- toward English. We must learn the other fellow's language to show true appreciation to him, to his culture, and to the extra effort he applied to learn English.

The vice president for international operations of an Ohio firm wrote:

> There is a rapidly increasing need for foreign language skills in our organization and every organization. However, we find there is great difficulty in hiring people in the Midwest where little contact with foreigners or foreign-speaking people is obtainable. The schools, likewise, are not set up properly to teach language skills. Therefore, in general we hire third country nationals in the country where we are operating or in the regions where they are responsible. Accordingly, all of our top management positions outside the United States -- such as technical directors, regional managers, sales personnel, and managing directors -- are held by foreigners. Most of our American technicians, we find, are not capable of adding language skills at the present time, so we have to send them out and then use local interpreters. There is definite need in the United States, especially in the Middle West, to develop more and more interest in language schools and training as our business becomes more and more international.

As a result of our questionnaire, the manager of literature and translation services of what is probably the best known U.S. chemical company inserted an announcement and commentary in the American Translators Association Newsletter, which he edits. Under "From the Editor's Desk" he commented regarding the ORC study:

> . . . I am afraid, though, that many of the business people who reply will reflect the general apathy toward

> language studies. Overseas jobs in industry are seldom filled by people who are fluent in the overseas language or interested in foreign cultures . . . .

Dozens of positive "success stories" were received which attributed company profits to language and cultural training policy. However, the surprisingly large number of nonresponses, partial responses, or responses denying need for language demonstrates the apathy described previously. Promotion of the concept of the alliance of the world of work and languages must include fostering change of traditional postures among business and industrial firms. There is ample evidence that support from business and management theorists and practitioners is available.

Future Needs for Language Proficiency

Many of the respondents to our survey noted that their need for language training will increase in the immediate future. A typical respondent claims: "We expect our international business to grow very significantly over the next ten years. We believe that international business will become much more important, and as a consequence we will need greater language skills."

The need for language capability is felt more keenly by those corporations opening up new territory. A soft drink corporation which employs over 1,200 workers said that whereas it now requires few language skills, with the expansion planned for the next five years, it will have a greatly increased need. The firm wants foreign language capability for French in Canada, Spanish in sections of the United States, and German overseas. By 1977, it plans to be in operation in all of these areas. "We will be satisfying the language needs by searching the files on employees for language proficiency and by developing an active recruitment and hiring policy requiring language proficiency." The company also plans to create an in-house language training capability with courses that will run for six to eight weeks.

On the other hand, when a corporation has been established in a given place overseas for some time, the tendency is to hire more native speakers and train them to run the business. One large department store operating in many countries predicts that its needs will decrease as it replaces Americans overseas with native personnel. For those who must go abroad to visit or to start up new stores, the company will continue to use the commercial language schools. One of the largest automobile manufacturers in the world claims that 5 percent of its people need a language as a secondary skill. A drug company with 26,000 employees, utilizing between one hundred and two hundred salesmen in various foreign operations, states:

> The trend of international business in our industry generally is markedly up until the present and it appears that it will continue in the future. Accordingly, the need for good management personnel (marketing management particularly, as well as factory and production management) will increase, it is anticipated. Meeting these needs will undoubtedly be difficult as American-born and raised individuals are too often parochial in outlook and do not frequently develop proficiency in foreign languages. We will probably have to seek out nationals of other countries to fill our needs, although we will continue to consider Americans who are truly committed to the international business field and are willing to undertake foreign assigments for long periods of time. (Emphasis added.)

In spite of the negative impression left by some multinational corporations with respect to the need for language capability, it is true that many others are now using large numbers of employees with second language proficiency, and some even plan ahead to satisfy their needs on a regular basis.

Among the largest users of foreign languages are the international banks, some of whom hire specifically for overseas assignments. Foreign languages are high on the priority list of qualifications. Others have their own in-house language facilities with a staff of linguists and language teachers.

A multinational company with 2,800 employees claims that 17 persons in their organization are Americans who have need of a foreign language. Over 60 percent of the company's business is conducted overseas and it will be needing more expertise in language, especially for Latin America, China, and Japan. The firm does not, however, plan ahead for language needs. When necessary, personnel are sent to attend a crash course at one of the commercial language schools. A multinational consumer electronics corporation with 15,000 employees worldwide anticipates an increasing demand for foreign language skills, mainly in the areas of marketing and operations. The firm is now planning to develop an international cadre of management who have both cultural and language flexibility. The company will continue to use the language schools plus local nationals as teachers.

Some companies state they are actively looking for recent college graduates with foreign languages. A moving van company says it recruits from college placement offices. Such companies are beginning to look well in advance of need for qualified people so they can be sure that language training is available.

The vice president of a machinery manufacturing company in the midwest (2,500 employees) claims that he is not able to fill the demand for languages in his company. The manager of the manpower selection and development division of a large multinational firm hiring 36,000 employees worldwide reports that his company now has 100 persons as managers who have a second language need. Company policy is: "All young entries in our organization must have at least one language to native fluency or near. The trend in all areas other than engineering is for managers sent overseas to be fluent in the language of the country concerned."

Not too surprising in view of the opening of business opportunities in mainland China is the unmet demand for trained business executives who possess competency in Chinese. This is especially true in marketing construction machinery. One company announced that they now would hire as many as 100 persons in that category if they were available. A large international banking firm recently hired language majors who speak Chinese and is training them in business skills. A large multinational chemical company reports that were it not for the legal requirement to hire up to 90 percent foreign nationals in most countries, they would send more individuals from the United States. At present the firm is looking for an accountant with Chinese capability. An oil company reports that it now hires almost one hundred and fifty salesmen for overseas duty who need foreign languages. The company is especially interested in mid-eastern languages at the present time, but it is always happy to find salesmen who know foreign languages.

A multinational credit corporation claims that out of the one hundred American employees in its international division, seventy-five of them need a high degree of language skills. This company hires relatively few college language majors because: "A person who just has language ability is of no value to us. We plan to hire many people for the Latin American area with Spanish and Portuguese and these will come largely from international business schools."

The importance of language training for those other than managers and technicians is highlighted in the response of a company selling aircraft overseas, which states that both pilots and the mechanics "need language capability in the company's operations." The comment continues: "If they do not have a foreign language background they are sometimes sent to school. Otherwise, they are expected to pick it up on location."

One thousand employees of an international company dealing in radios and other consumer electronics need second language competency, especially in sales and marketing. An officer of the company said:

> . . . with the growth of the company in the international market we would like to see the foreign language capacity of our company increase. Overseas, a large portion of our managers are foreign nationals; however, most important is the individual's capability rather than his/her language ability. So, if the right person is found we would send him/her even without the language skill.

It is significant that even where an established need exists the old theme is reiterated. "No one is hired because of language skills alone."

From the foregoing it is obvious that a few of the large multinational corporations have recognized the language barrier which stands between them and ideal working relationships overseas. Some of them plan ahead to handle these problems, while many have adopted a "wait-and-see" approach. Apparently, competition has not become such a factor that companies have to go all out to maximize the advantages that can come from developing total cross cultural communication capabilities. American technology in research and design, packaging, delivery, reliability, and quality still makes U.S. products and services valuable overseas. But to some extent competition has entered the picture, and some companies are now looking to the possibility of improving linguistic and cultural communication in order to compete on an equal basis.

The total impression one takes from examining the hiring policies and practices of language personnel need not be pessimistic. Being aware of the prerequisites for employment and conditions of working and living abroad, one can prepare for and procure a position overseas if he or she desires that type of work. In those corporations where constant contact is made with non-English speaking nationals, the need for language competency is so obvious that it is not difficult to justify corporate disbursement of funds to handle the cost of providing language capability. Evidently a few corporations have found it advantageous and profitable to take this course of action. Since one of the most typical of American traits is practicality, it can be expected that as more and more firms realize the advantages which accrue to those companies which have multilingual capabilities in their operations, they will establish policies and procedures to satisfy those needs.

The development of a language-capable cadre of international managers and executives is an idea whose time has arrived. This is in line with the most advanced planning in handling international communication problems. It is also a reflection of practical experience by those companies which have developed groups of employees who continuously work and live abroad, going from one assignment to another. The executive with this type of experience is highly regarded for his flexibility and for the adaptability of his family. To plan ahead and train these individuals is a valuable practice which will continue in the future. Experts applaud the efforts of the progressive companies and deplore the lack of insight still shown by many international corporations.

Implications Drawn from the Business and Industry Data

The data suggests the following:

(1) While the percentage of the total labor force in which language is needful or helpful is not large, the total number of positions identified by respondents, together with those which may be inferred from the data, is encouraging. This situation is supportive to the concept of creating new specialities based on cross-training in languages, cultural awareness and professional/technical skills. Large companies offer the most likely prospects for employment, but the total number of positions

offered by smaller companies combined, offer significant numbers of positions. Export management companies do not appear to be a very fruitful field, since 88 percent of the respondents indicated positions totaling only 673 which need or could use language skills. The turnover among only 673 jobs nation wide would not be very significant.

(2) More positions are identified which find language useful as a secondary tool or as a desirable skill, than are identified which find language as essential. This probably represents the perception of international business and industry, but the literature survey suggests that business and industry officials are insufficiently informed as to the need and value of languages. Since few businesses have reached stages of sophistication in the utilization of languages and cultural awareness training, this result might be indicative of the need for further education among business and industry leaders about the "payoff" of language and cultural factors in their respective businesses. Recall that few firms are considered by business experts to be geocentric or to have achieved a cosmopolitan corporate culture. The data tend to confirm that hypothesis. No attempt was made to divide respondents into ethnocentric, polycentric, or geocentric groups because the questionnaire was insufficiently designed to make such

a typology possible. Nevertheless, in comments and response patterns of individual companies, evidences of all three attitude postures appear to be consistent with literature descriptions of these phenomena.

In relation to U.S. citizen employees, the data indicate language is important as a secondary tool or as a "helpful" skill. However, when considering the overall organization, with foreign employees added, the number of positions requiring native fluency was higher than other proficiency levels checked by the respondents. This seems to be an inconsistency: On the one hand, respondents tended to discount primary language skill, but on a later item they tended to place high value on native fluency.

(3) According to the data, not much effect is exerted on salary raises by linguistic skills. Nearly two-thirds of the respondents said it has less effect than other factors. This is consistent with literature findings and informal comments gathered in the LWOW study. Highest value is placed on technical skills rather than language skills. The relatively small number (10 percent or less) of respondents who indicated that language skills are rewarded by pay incentives is consistent with literature findings. However, the data do not indicate the indirect effect that language and cultural awareness may have on pay raises if one assumes that such skills

will improve overall performance. Again, there is an implication that much of the business/industry community may need enlightenment and education. This finding contrasts with the data on government agencies, where we find that the government does include pay incentives related to language acquisition and improvement.

(4) The finding that "world" languages, such as Spanish, French, and German, are seen as more important than regional languages, such as Portuguese, Italian, Japanese, and so on is not surprising. However, it was an anomaly to discover that the 500 largest U.S. corporations, (Fortune 500 list) place two regional languages -- Portuguese and Italian -- ahead of German in their listing of priorities. This appears to be a reflection of increased efforts in Latin America, including intense interest in Brazil, as well as expansion in Italy. One might also speculate that the largest U.S. corporations find the competition high in German-speaking countries due to the industrialized nature of West Germany, the specialized industry of Austria and Switzerland, and the impossibility of penetrating East Germany. Thus, German would naturally prove to be less fruitful than Spanish, French, Portuguese, and Italian.

It was presupposed that there would be more intense interest shown in Arabic or other Middle East languages, but the data does not reflect much unusual interest there on the part of the respondents. This is surprising, since it is generally recognized that some of these countries are engaging American corporations on a fairly large scale to provide technical assistance. Perhaps the political instability of the Middle East causes many corporations to resist these opportunities and concentrate on maintenance in Europe and Japan and expansion in Latin America.

(5) The significant methods used by companies to solve language problems include heavy reliance on native speakers. This may be explained in part by the fact that the native speaker of the host country is usually a less expensive employee. Another factor may be that conditions of entry into a country often require large proportions of the labor for personnel to be host country nationals. Of more interest to the concept of languages for the world of work is the fact that 50 percent or more of the companies surveyed rely on formally trained language personnel, even though there is little formal training available that is job-related. The exceptions are schools conducted by the U.S. military and the U.S. civil service. Considerable use of commercial language schools is noted by businesses. In fact, among the Fortune 500 group, 62 percent indicated that they have utilized commercial language schools. Again, if relevant training in languages occurred concurrently with professional or job

training, companies would naturally be anxious to avoid the outlay they currently pay to commercial language houses. The creation of cross-trained majors is encouraging in this light; it appears that if college graduates are adequately trained, companies will not hesitate to give them preference over persons who they might have to send to language schools at additional expense.

Relatively little in-house language training is done, particularly by comparison with government agencies, which rely on in-house training to a high degree. It would appear that business and industry could stand the enlightenment government has to offer in terms of rating systems, incentives and standardized training methods. Also, colleges and universities which aspire to decrease business and industry's reliance on the commercial language school might look to the government for models. These institutions should also obtain more precise information from business and industry about what they consider to be a suitable "product" of language training, as well as about the desired qualifications technically and professionally.

(6) It appears that jobs exist in foreign environments ranging from managerial or administrative positions to skilled and semiskilled levels. But the emphasis of need perceived by our respondents is clearly toward the administrative level. When the data is scrutinized for areas

in which the respondents identify technical/professional fields best combined with language, business administration and management again come to the forefront. While a good case can be made for other languages and other fields, it would appear that by combining data we may identify the top priority need or combination of needs, at least in terms of the perception of the respondents. First of all Spanish is clearly the language indicated as being most needed. Then, in a grouping of intra-professional categories (management, supervisory, clerical, and skilled/semi-skilled), management level skills are clearly preferred. (This should not be too surprising in view of the fact that respondents are from the Western Hemisphere where more Spanish is spoken than other languages, and where the respondents themselves are business oriented.) Thus, the data suggests not only that languages are important for the world of work in general, but that a good place to start would be with the cross-training of international business executives and the Spanish language.

Survey of Newspaper Advertisements Requesting Language Skills

In an attempt to get closer to the climate of the current job market, a minor and somewhat cursory survey was conducted of the job market as reflected by advertisements appearing in several major newspapers in the country. The major objectives of the newspaper survey were to gather a list of actual job titles requiring language adjunct skills and to provide a measure of tangibility to some of the hard data that emerged from the study itself.

The newspapers surveyed were:

New York Times
Washington Post
Seattle Times
Chicago Tribune
Denver Post
San Francisco Chronicle
Los Angeles Times

Sunday editions of these newspapers were surveyed for fifteen weeks, covering the period from March 23 through June 29, 1975.

Table 5-11 synthesizes the more significant findings of the newspaper survey. The job categories established were managerial/administrative, professional services, education/social services, supervisory/sales, clerical/secretarial, and skilled/semi-skilled. While these categories are for the most part self-explanatory, it may be useful to point out that professional services includes physicians, engineers, dentists, and so on.

During the fifteen-week period of the newspaper survey, a total of 372 job opportunities requiring language skills were identified. Information regarding age, sex, and salary range was generally unspecified. Of the job opportunities identified in the various newspapers, the majority was in the category requesting Spanish language and clerical/secretarial skills. Next in frequency appear to be those jobs requiring administrative/managerial skills plus Spanish. In all

TABLE 5-11

Survey of Newspaper Help Wanted Sections for Positions Requiring Language Capability

Job Category	Number of Openings	Travel or Foreign Residence Required	Language Requested			
			Spanish	French	German	Other or Unspecified
Managerial/ Administrative	65	27	42	13	3	21
Professional Services	43	17	22	5	2	17
Educational/ Social Services	41	0	27	6	1	15
Supervisory/ Sales	47	8	29	4	0	14
Clerical/ Secretarial	107	8	68	11	7	28
Skilled/ Semi-skilled	69	1	52	9	3	21

professional categories, Spanish, French and German, in that order, had the highest incidence of request. Many jobs required at least two languages other than English.

Jobs at the managerial/administrative level seemed to provide the greatest opportunity for foreign residence or travel, while educational/social services opportunities appear to be almost entirely domestic.

Of great interest to the overall objectives of this study is the list of actual job titles which emerged from the newspaper survey:

European Housing Superintendents

Administrative Assistant (Embassy - Washington, D.C.)

Food Packaging Production Supervisor

Registered Nurse

Associate Director, Health Administration (Cogent Public Law)

International Operations Officers for Multinational Bank

Project Director, Public Health and Public Administration

Accounting Assistant

Architects:
  Industrial
  Residential
  Commercial
  Institutional

Engineers:
  Structural
  Mechanical
  Sanitary
  Traffic
  Transportation

International Sales Person, Industrial Products

Sales Manager, Foreign Distribution and Marketing

Executive Director for Health Services Project

Respiratory Therapist

Group Controller (Industrial Manufacturer)

Latin American Area Manager, Ethical Pharmaceuticals

Controller (Financial Specialist)

Social Worker

Serials/Reference Librarian

Music Librarian

Psychologist

Import Manager/Assistant Procurement Manager

Manager of Field Engineering

Civil Engineers (Peace Corps)

Medical Business Manager, Administrator

Divisional Vice President (Company Opening Overseas Division)

Personnel Manager, International

Vice President for Technical Operations (International)

International Finance Director

Editor/Translator

Chemical Engineer

Overseas School Administrator

School Psychologist

Job Developer (Jewish Welfare Agency)

Assistant Reference Librarian

Assistant Director, Casework Services (Family Agency)

Marketing Team Assistant

Technical Marketing Manager for American Hospital Supply Corporation

Senior Auditor (Chemical Company)

Social Service Practitioner I and II

Quality Assurance Specialist

Market Planning Manager

General Manager, International Corporation

Manager, Research and Advisory Services

Controller

General Manager, International Translation Company

Executives (Industry and Commerce)

International Secretary

Group-Controller (Hotel Chain)

Secretary/Assistant to Public Relations Executive

Bilingual Executive Secretary

Sales Manager (Food Company)

X-Ray Technician

Manager, International Audit

International Money Manager

Psychiatrist

Internist

Director, International Division (Education Company)

Field Service Engineer

Accountant

For skilled and semi-skilled workers job opportunities were listed in such positions as auto salesman, furniture salesman, cook, plumber, medical typist, receptionist, retail salesperson, legal secretary, teenage counselor, housing superintendent, construction worker, and others. For these positions the native American is in competition with the native speakers of Spanish, Japanese, or Portuguese, as the case may require. Of course, the native American with language ability would certainly have an advantage over native Americans whose qualifications were otherwise comparable.

According to the results of the newspaper survey, this type of job opportunity is much more prevalent on the West Coast, especially in the Los Angeles and San Francisco areas where there are large concentrations of speakers of other languages. In places such as Miami, Florida, where an estimated fifty percent of the population speaks Spanish, a native American applying for a job which requires meeting the public is at a distinct disadvantage if he or she does not have conversational ability in Spanish.

Domestic Use of Languages in Business and Industry

This study was not concerned with language requirements for domestic use. However, the influence of language skills in relation to the domestic labor force was tangentially explored. The data obtained by the study do not provide any conclusive information regarding numbers of jobs, types of jobs, or levels of skills requiring language ability within the United States. Even though an attempt was made to solicit information from foreign language radio and television stations, foreign language newspapers, and state employment security offices, the amount of data collected was simply not sufficient to make any projections in this area.

However, we became convinced that it is an area which deserves a formal study. The study would have to be designed differently from the study reported here, because the problems are different. Most multinational corporations are forced to recognize a need for foreign language skills in their overseas operations; the same cannot be said of organizations which operate only on a domestic level. Factors such as the nature and structure of the business, the geographic area being served, the type of service or product offered, manpower availability, and consumer interest create a variety of conditions which do not always remain as constant as the factors impinging on language use in foreign locations.

For example, it is widely known that Spanish is an essential language for some business operations in the United States. That necessity was once characteristic of the southwest region of the nation, but it is no longer confined to any geographic area. Where specific language needs were once regionalized, they are now spreading to all parts of the country. Virtually every state in the U.S. has Spanish speaking citizens in sufficient numbers to justify some effort in bilingual education and bilingual capability in commercial, government, and social agencies.

Whether or not the same thing is true with languages other than Spanish is not known. But it is certainly true that where language needs were once regionalized, they are now spreading to all parts of the country.

This matter is worthy of in-depth study.

As stated above, this study did not produce sufficient data to facilitate any sort of conclusions regarding these matters. However, the study did disclose some of the legal and social forces which may be pertinent, and we take this opportunity to cite general conditions or needs which we observed in a purely subjective sense.

Bilingual Education in the Public Schools

The movement toward bilingual education has grown by geometric proportions during the last ten years, both with regard to government fiscal support and pupil participation. Legislation in Public Law 93-380 (The Education Amendments of 1974) authorizes additional increases in expenditures over the next several years.

Most states are moving toward the adoption of formal certification requirements for bilingual teachers. State and federal officials indicated to our researchers that a shortage of bilingual teachers exists in some states (Texas, Florida, California, and others). The shortage may become even more acute as stricter certification requirements take effect. Of course, this is a reversal of the general outlook for employment of teachers in the public schools. Federal support is available to assist states and local education agencies in training and hiring bilingual teachers, and similar support is also available to colleges and universities for training in the field of bilingual education.

Some native Americans, as well as new immigrants whose home language is other than English, need to learn English as a second language in order to be able to perform their work in the United States. Although this need was also not studied in the LWOW survey, it is an area of growing concern. Bilingual education at all levels is currently a major national effort sponsored by the federal government.

Since the scope of effort and the conditions necessitating that effort are well documented in the literature, we will not elaborate further on bilingual education. However, it should be pointed out that a bilingual teacher working in a formal bilingual education setting is a good example of languages in the world of work in a domestic setting.

Federal and State Departments of Justice

During the course of the study, we interviewed the Honorable H. Vern Payne, a district judge of the State of New Mexico in Bernallillo County. He indicated there is a movement toward the establishment of legal precedence and legislation favoring increased services to non-English speaking citizens who are involved in court proceedings. Judge Payne's opinions were consistent with those expressed by the Honorable Keith G. Sebelius, speaking in behalf of a bill known as the Bilingual Courts Act: "I believe it is wrong for non-English speaking citizens to be forced to participate in legal proceedings conducted in a language with which they are not familiar."

Social and Welfare Services

The use of non-English language by state and federal social and welfare workers is expected to increase, just as bilingual language in order to be able to perform their work in the United States. Although this need was also not studied in the LWOW survey, it is an area of growing concern. Bilingual education at all levels is currently a major national effort sponsored by the federal government.

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Social and Welfare Services

The use of non-English language by state and federal social and welfare workers is expected to increase, just as bilingual education and bilingual legal usage is expected to increase. Current literature provides considerable documentation for this trend.

U.S. and Mexico Twin Plant Concept

A growing factor in the labor-industrial complex is the agreement between the United States and Mexico to allow labor-intensive tasks to be performed on the Mexican side of the border, where labor is less expensive. The agreement also provides for the transfer of raw materials, partially finished products, and finished products to or from the United States under favorable tariff and duty regulations. The "twin plants" must be within certain predefined areas along the border. The use of American citizens as workers on the Mexican side of the border and the use of Mexican citizens on the American side of the border is restricted, but it is permitted under certain provisions of the program, particularly in crucial administrative or supervisory positions. These positions invariably require Spanish language skills.

This program is growing and currently includes border town combinations all the way from TiJuana and San Diego on the west to Matamoros and Brownsville on the east. In some cases the program has resulted in "twin industrial parks," as in the case in Juarez and El Paso, where two industrial parks exist almost side by side across the border.

Mexico has proposed that materials be permitted to be transferred to areas other than along the border in an effort to spread employment opportunities to depressed areas and to promote the use of Mexican raw materials at more convenient locations. At the time this study was conducted, such an agreement had not been formally concluded.

Impact of New Developments

Obviously, the developments discussed above, together with other similar movements, create more jobs where language skills are necessary or desirable. However, it should be noted that where these developments occur along border areas, qualified persons are already available who also have language skills. This is also true for programs related to and adjacent to American Indian communities. For example, the "twin plant" program in El Paso has indeed created a need for supervisors and administrators who have bilingual skills, but El Paso is a city filled with bilingually qualified persons; it is not necessary for that area to import persons trained at some distant language school to fill those jobs.

On the other hand, the need does exist for persons who are qualified linguistically and who also have high professional skills. This includes such professional skills as those possessed by counselors, doctors, medical technicians, social workers, and bilingual education teachers. Colleges and universities outside the area might be well advised to inaugurate world of work oriented language programs to serve those pressing needs. Also, since the local population includes many with bilingual skills, educational institutions might consider providing qualified local persons with the professional training needed. (The reader is referred to an earlier ORC study titled An Assessment of Cultural and Linguistic Variables in Manpower and Vocational Skill Training Programs -- 1973.)

The key to dealing with both language and skill deficiencies is flexibility. Whether the solution is through programs to train language-proficient persons in professional skills or to train professional persons to acquire language skills, the primary need is for trainers and teachers who can assess the needs, implement programs, counsel students, appraise their progress, and assist in the placement of "graduates."

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6

PHASE III: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Shortly after becoming President of the United States, Gerald R. Ford, in a commencement address at Ohio State University on August 30, 1974, emphasized the need for a new climate of credibility between academia and the world of work, calling for the practical application of education to provide graduates with what he termed "jobs that make sense as well as money" (New York Times, also Weinstein, p. 18). Focusing his attention on unemployment among graduates, he challenged educators to make teaching relevant to today's career needs.

The language profession is not alone in the need to consider the employability of its students. Humanities and liberal arts majors, in general, have experienced increasing difficulty in finding suitable employment. James and Decker (p. 27) report a survey of 100 companies, first taken in 1965 then replicated in 1972, which demonstrates the dramatic shift away from liberal arts majors as prospective employees of business and industry. The question was asked: When hiring, is your company interested in the business major or the liberal arts major? It was found that:

In 1965 --

38% were interested in the business major,

12% were interested in the liberal arts major,

50% were interested in either;

In 1972 --

81% were interested in the business major,

0% were interested in the liberal arts major,

19% were interested in either.

In the same study 23 percent of the 1965 respondents recommended a mean number of four foreign language hours. In 1972 the replication of the study showed a drop to 17 percent but with the new mean hours recommended of foreign language study dropping to a mere one hour. When all of the preferred studies and their hours were ranked and reordered into a realistic curriculum proposal, foreign language rated three hours of a total of 58 liberal arts hours and only one hour in the 1972 proposed curriculum for liberal arts of 51 total hours. Such a curriculum if implemented would probably be worse than no language instruction at all, considering the investment for such a small number of student credit hours. The study shows that the respondents, personnel managers in business and industry, tend to hold foreign language instruction in very low esteem indeed. It is small comfort that art, music, anthropology, education, and physical education fared no better.

In other branches of the humanities, similar statistics are available. The crisis is nationwide. Some professors have begun to sense its implications for the language profession.

In the September 1, 1975 issue of U.S. News and World Report (p. 51), an article on career training stresses the trend of colleges and schools to focus the training of their students on better working lives.

> Although the concept of career education is only four years old, Kenneth B. Hoyt, head of the program in the Office of Education, reports that about 5,000 of the nation's 17,000 school districts have launched career-education programs. More than 25 states have appropriated funds to encourage this kind of training.
>
> Most of the emphasis so far has been in grades from kindergarten to 12. But colleges are entering the program, too. U.S. Education Commissioner Terrel Bell said:
>
> > "The college that devotes itself totally and unequivocally to the liberal arts today is just kidding itself. Today, we in education must recognize that it is our duty to provide our students also with salable skills."

John W. Kronik, writing for the March 1975 ADFL Bulletin (p. 23) issues the following caveat:

> Let me pronounce a warning and a prophecy. If we don't do something different from the way we've been doing things, if we don't change, adapt, realign ourselves, we're doomed. The security we find in our old patterns can well undo the security of our profession. What sort of profession is it that apes its own past instead of striking along new roads? How dare we be so concerned with our material that we forget our constituency? Who is this constituency? It is the language major who is still asking, Why am I studying a foreign language? What can I do with it? It is the parents. And it is also the prospective employers who want a kind of expertise they are not now getting from the typical language major.

For more than ten years now we have occasionally seen articles in the professional journals focusing on the idea of languages for the world of work. During the past two years there has been a distinct increase in the interest and activity in this topic. Incidentally, it is during the last two years that the crisis in the language teaching profession has become more notably threatening.

The cause for the slump has been accurately diagnosed by highly placed officials in the language profession. Dr. Richard I. Brod of the Modern Language Association says it is because language educators "didn't relate language study to the living languages out there in the world. The reason (students) have fled language study," Brod concludes, "is a combination of both the general 'everybody speaks English' attitude of Americans and the 'inadequate' literary heavy approach used by many college language teachers."

The late Florence Steiner (quoted by Delaney, 1973; see also Honig and Brod) suggested that perhaps the concepts of career education could provide the momentum for needed reform in foreign language teaching. She suggested that what is needed is a greater flexibility in program structure that would allow for a variety of career choices (Steiner, pp. 186-91). The key word seems to be variety. Whereas in the past languages have gained credibility in the liberal arts and the humanities, a few of the forward-looking language educators are discovering that it is possible and desirable to broaden the sphere of service by providing language training as an adjunct skill to a wide variety of careers in which language competency is being more and more recognized as a prerequisite.

While some of the leaders and teachers in the profession have seen the necessity to change the approach or offer alternative programs, these ideas have not been accepted by the profession generally. Dr. Frank Grittner, President Elect of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, expressed the opinion held by many when he stated in a recent Modern Language Journal article that "it is both dangerous and dishonest to make too close a tie between humanistic subject matter and career goals" (Grittner, pp. 241-48). In other articles, he has claimed that a student must be motivated by intrinsic rather than extrinsic interest in language study.

The clarification of the role of the humanities in the marketplace is today one of the chief challenges facing the colleges in general and the language teaching profession in particular. There is obviously a wide divergence of opinion regarding this issue, and much effort will be required before a consensus can be reached.

In the meantime, it seems appropriate to suggest that both viewpoints can be accepted. Language study, for its liberal arts and humanistic values, cannot be overlooked. On the other hand, language study for service to the community and to satisfy the needs of government and business must also be taken into consideration. If the language and literature student's goals are not career oriented, the "heavy literature approach" is not objectionable. The challenge is to provide both kinds of training and to give the student the opportunity to choose according to his career goals.

It also seems appropriate to suggest at this point that if a student intends to use a language in his life's work, counseling becomes of utmost importance.

We might paraphrase Dr. Grittner and ask: Is it not both dangerous and dishonest to continue to prepare students for non-existent positions? The following table is the product of a cursory examination of recent issues of the MLA Job Information List:

Date	Definite Vacancies	Possible Vacancies
October 1974	234	188
December 1974	289	180
February 1975	261	110

When compared to the annual production of Ph.Ds in language, this does not appear to be an indication of great opportunity.

Suffice it here to say that since there are many jobs which require knowledge of a language as an adjunct skill, it would be missing an opportunity not to provide language training for this need. If one of the overseas American's principal problems is relating favorably to the host nationals, why is language study not at the top of everyone's priority list? Part of the reason may be because today's language major as presently trained is not prepared to meet the practical language needs of government, business, and industry. Some will still question whether this is an acceptable goal for college language students, while others already quoted maintain that finding such new alternatives is the key to survival.

Yet the thrust toward combination of language and professional or technical skill is amazingly overlooked even when theorists probe and search for new directions. Headlined, "There is . . . still considerable distance to go in sweeping away remaining barnacles of traditionalism which continue to make foreign language unattractive to many young people who fail to see any relationship between it and contemporary life" (Ornstein, p. 395), here is a fairly recent article one would expect to delve heavily into the opportunities of career/languages combinations. Instead it dwells on new methodology such as computer-assisted instruction, programmed learning, individualization, and a few other ideas that have now been kicked around long enough to hardly deserve being mentioned as innovations. With relation to relevance, the author mentions casually new tapes with "generous use of authentic materials such as news broadcasts, interviews, speeches, popular songs, and excerpts from plays." He also mentions that some "commercial publishers are making efforts to include such contemporary themes as ecology and the liberation movements" (Ornstein, pp. 396-7). Only one short sentence exists in the whole article that suggests the exciting and tremendous possibilities for world-of-work language training: "At the newly opened University of Texas, San Antonio, students may receive an M.S. in Bilingual Medical Interpretation -- including a course in Medical Anthropology, for barrio work -- or an M.A. in Bicultural Studies or Bilingual Teacher Education" (p. 397). This is "new accents in foreign language teaching"?

From the point of view of a teacher of literature it may seem as if he has sold out to crass materialism if he teaches the foreign language to a student who will use it in business rather than to teach literature. One should consider, however, the great contribution the language departments can make to the business world in terms of the ability to carry on business operations in the host's language and with proper deference to the host's cultural values. Certainly the typical American businessman could use to good advantage the humanizing influence which comes from studying language and intercultural communications. This assertion applies with equal force to many other careers. What could be more humanizing than bringing people together in a common tongue?

The language and literature professors may have some misgivings about incorporating career education concepts into their goals and objectives because of a misunderstanding of the relationship between career education and vocational education. An excellent synthesis of what career education is and is not is provided by the current Associate Commissioner of Career Education, Dr. Kenneth B. Hoyt. Of particular interest is his articulation of the relationship between career and vocational education (Hoyt, p. 60):

1. Career education includes career awareness, exploration, decision making, preparation, entry and advancement. Vocational education has only one of these components -- career preparation -- as its main thrust.
2. Career education is for all persons, whereas vocational education as it now exists, concentrates primarily on people seeking vocational-technical education below the baccalaureate degree level.
3. Career education emphasizes both paid and unpaid work in the lives of individuals, whereas vocational education emphasizes preparation for work in the world of paid employment.

This definition of career education gives a more accurate picture of the usefulness of languages for the world of work, work in this sense which applies to all levels of careers in which language competency plays a part in carrying out one's daily assignments. As suggested earlier in this report, language as a secondary adjunct skill means that language skill is an integrated part of the totality of one's professional expertise.

Too many times meeting rising needs is interpreted by language teachers as meaning career possibilities in travel, translating, and interpreting. Many of the schools and colleges now developing career education programs in foreign languages list careers in translation and interpreting as viable occupational outlets for language majors. A common activity in career awareness is to take students to the United Nations to show them job possibilities. It is true that a limited number of highly qualified people do, in fact, earn their living in such careers. But as pointed out earlier, the job qualifications here are, in reality, too high for most prospective foreign language students because of the high degree of bilingualism required. Students should be aware, however, of the current placement and working conditions.

The Occupational Outlook Handbook (U.S. Department of Labor, p. 607) indicates that in the area of interpretation 150 people made a living through full-time employment, while an estimated 450 more worked as free lance interpreters in 1972. Similar figures are not available for professional translators. However, response to interviews and correspondence with members of the American Translators Association (ATA) indicates that although there are more people employed as translators now, the number of potential vacancies is not substantially larger (Tinsley).

Indicative of the general conditions in translating is the fact that according to the professionals, their two main concerns are the establishment of professional standards and the improvement of remuneration standards for the profession.

Royal L. Tinsley, president elect of the American Translators Association, in a letter to the Languages for the World of Work staff, reveals that the "state of the art" in the translation field leaves a great deal to be desired. "Most translators have had no training," he says, and

> . . . though many have acquired a great deal of expertise through experience, about 40-45% fail the ATA Accreditation Exams. This is almost incredible in view of the fact that the exams require only a general knowledge of the fundamentals of translation, and a candidate need only pass 2 out of 3 passages using all the dictionaries he can bring with him. He is allowed one major and 6-8 minor errors on each passage! Granted, the passages are mostly general journalism, and it is a timed exam. It is conceivable that one could be a relatively good translator in some very specialized field and fail on general translation, or might be a good translator if given sufficient time. Still, the great number of failures among professional translators (some of them making their living at translation for many years) leads one to suspect that half the translators in this country do not know the first thing about translating.

According to Tinsley also,

> . . . a translator does not need any real skill in the subject matter field, but he does need a general understanding of the subject and a command of the technical jargon. He should be able to discuss general concepts with expertise in the field without giving away just how limited his expertise really is! This leads me to conclude that even in translations in which language is considered a primary tool one must acquire training and experience in other fields. The ability to write English in a wide variety of appropriate styles is also a prime requisite.

Tinsley further observes that

> . . . specialization in some field with language as an adjunct skill is fine if one makes his career in his field of specialization but he may lose his language skills rather rapidly for lack of practice. Engineers and scientists are worth much more as engineers and scientists than they are as translators. However, if they do not make it as engineers or scientists, for whatever reason, they may make excellent translators, or at least, for their field of specialization (See also Tinsley, 1974, p. 8).

Institutions of higher learning would do well to investigate thoroughly the rate of remuneration and the number of vacancies available in translating and interpreting before they suggest these careers as a motivation. They should also apprise the student of the fact that a high degree of competency is required.

A matter of some concern is the lack of adequate training programs for translators. There is also a belief among some language teachers that the traditional language-literature curriculum now offered in the majority of our colleges will qualify a person for the positions available. The fact is that unless one has exceptional language ability of the type acquired through extended residence abroad, success as a translator may not be a possibility. Fortunately, there are a few colleges now beginning to offer special training for translators and interpreters. Hopefully, this is in response to a predetermined need. The decision to offer such training is highly commendable.

Model Training Programs

Since the early 1970s when Sidney P. Marland, then Commissioner of Education, was crying out so emphatically for career education, there have been an increasing number of endeavors made at the elementary, secondary, and higher education levels to incorporate the principles of career education into the foreign language curriculum. To date these efforts have produced few, if any, curricular materials integrating language, cultural empathy, and a discipline, although an increasing number of institutions have what they call their career education program in foreign languages.

Many of these efforts have been made for the students at the high school level. They are directed for the most part to the awareness phase of career education and include supplementary activities such as values clarification exercises, information gathering projects, and trips to the United Nations building or an international airport or other places where languages are used on a day-to-day basis in carrying out a work assignment.

Although the evaluation of institutions developing language curricula did not come within the scope of this study, a number of such institutions have been identified. The reader is referred to the appendix for a partial list of these institutions now stressing languages for the world of work. Reference to others may be found in the bibliography.

In the meantime, private language schools have developed programs that train business executives for overseas positions. The curricula for these programs are naturally not available to us because of their commercial nature and the necessity of each school keeping its own trade secrets.

As evidence of the interest on the part of business and industry, it is encouraging to note that Exxon Corporation has agreed recently to provide $25,000 to the American Council on Education for the support of a Task Force on Business and International Education. The Task Force will address itself, among other matters, to (1) an assessment of business educational needs, (2) an evaluation of curricular responses to that need, and (3) recommendations for future collaboration between government, academia, and business (ADFL Bulletin, p. 4).

While we are awaiting the results of that study and the possible elaboration of a model for improved training courses in international education, we can look with interest to the example of two foreign institutions in other countries that have established substantial training programs in this field. The East Asiatic Company (EAC) of Denmark is one of the largest trading houses in Europe and has been in business in the Far East since 1897. An EAC training officer states that his company "attaches great importance to the training of overseas staff in languages and also in learning the culture of the country in which they work" (Newsweek, p. 48).

When the young trainees at EAC start basic training at the head office, they already have six to eight years of English, five to six years of German, and two to four years of French behind them. At the head office they have, in addition to other studies in foreign trade and business, three years of English, one year of German, and one year each of French, Spanish, and Portuguese. The company recruits high school graduates. "We don't mind them getting a higher education," says the training officer, "but we want to give it to them" (Newsweek).

Another very highly developed training program is that of the Institute of International Training and Studies near Fuji, Japan. It was created by the Ministry of International Trade and Industry (MITT). The studentbody consists of 120 young corporate executives (average age about 30) who are sent by their respective employers for an intensive year-long, full-time course of study. It consists of intensive English language training plus U.S. area studies, general management, international management, a second language plus relevant area study, and a two-month study tour of some part of the world. Japanese industry is deliberately creating a trained cadre of international managers (Robinson, p. 278).

Although the U.S. Government has not combined its efforts with business in establishing international training centers, it has funded some research projects such as this one on Languages for the World of Work and some others designed to promote the use of language training for careers and occupations. Notable among these is the Dade County Public Schools project in Miami, Florida, funded by ESEA, Title II, HEW, to produce and test a program entitled "Individualizing Spanish for Speakers of English." The director, Mirta Vega, and her staff, have developed units on automotive services, barber services, food services, health services, and many others. These materials are being tested now in public and private schools, adult community schools, and Miami Dade Community College. They are directed towards the language proficiency needed in the domestic situations where American born individuals must learn Spanish in order to deal with Spanish speakers in many business and government services available to the public. This is one of a handful of projects on the elementary and high school level dedicated to the development of an integrated curriculum of language and careers or occupations. An effort has been made to include cultural components in the program. One of its great advantages is the type of motivation it offers students. Taking the role of a clerk, mechanic, service station attendant, or hospital technician apparently provides an exciting setting in which to learn a language. From the preliminary reports of the director there is no dropping off in enrollment. On the contrary, the occupationally oriented approach is attracting many students to language classes much to the joy and satisfaction of the teachers and the administrators alike.

Responding to the expressed need for language proficiency on the part of various community groups, there is a proliferation of textual materials being prepared in different regions of the country. Many monolingual Americans are finding that in order to serve the populations of non-English-speaking people, especially in the larger cities, they must now learn a second language. The need is principally being felt to learn Spanish, but there is also a need in French, Chinese, Portuguese, and certain native American languages.

In Spanish, modular materials have been created to teach those engaged in medical services, child care, social work, law enforcement, farm and ranch operations. There are also programs for stewardesses, travel agents, hotel managers, and those who deal in commercial correspondence. According to W. D. Wilkinton, who is heavily committed to the production of this type of curricular materials, there is a great demand for the individualized packages he is now writing at Mesa College at Grand Junction, Colorado.

On the college level, a number of colleges and community colleges are now in the process of preparing curricula for an integrated approach. The University of Cincinnati announced in 1973 the establishment of an International Business Administration [illegible] Departments of Germanic and Romance languages (Gaeng). Anot[illegible] program integrating language study with career preparation which has been in operation for several years is the multimedia program of Careers in Spanish developed at the Manchester Community College by Professor Toby Tamarkin (Lester and Tamarkin). This program has received wide publicity and was used as a model for the demonstration units developed in this phase of the Languages for the World of Work project.

Among the graduate programs with a foreign language component which are most frequently mentioned in international business circles are the American Graduate School of International Management at Thunderbird, Arizona; the International Institute and the Graduate School of Management at the University of Dallas at Irvine, Texas; and the Business Council for International Understanding at American University, Washington, D.C., all of which were visited by ORC researchers (also see Merklein, p. 33).

Also involved in this type of training are a number of private language schools including Language House, LanFran, Inlingua, Sullivan, and Berlitz. Language House of Chicago trains business executives in languages as well as intercultural communications and, incidentally cooperated with this study by furnishing data and in-depth orientation regarding the field of international studies and language training. They have a booklet entitled How to Evaluate Your Corporate Language Training Needs, which helps multinational corporations focus on some of the chief problems involved in sending representatives overseas. This cooperation was in direct contrast to the Berlitz Company, which is known to have a large clientele in language training but which, at every level, including the New York headquarters, declined to cooperate with this study on the grounds that the survey requested privileged information.

Many Americans working as monitors for government manpower programs whose trainees are of limited English speaking ability find it extremely advantageous to know another language. Those monolingual Americans who administer programs such as Migrant Education and Bilingual Education are also becoming aware of the need to know the language of their trainees and are seeking language and culture programs to fit their needs.

Apparently the national market for the type of materials which integrate language, career, and culture is not great enough yet to attract national publishers to the production of school or college texts in these areas of specialization. It is therefore a task that is being undertaken only by individuals in those places where the need is most pressing. The existence of so many isolated programs is, however, of increasing importance and points out a need which must be met sooner or later in our public school and college language programs. The success of this thrust will, to a large extent, be dependent on the quality of the curricular materials developed, which in turn may depend on the extent to which the language departments of the schools and universities respond to the needs of the community populations.

In order to meet the local community needs as well as the international needs for language and intercultural training, the language departments must be willing to provide expertise in instructional design and their experience in language instruction programs. If not for the altruistic desire to serve community and international needs then for sheer survival, the teachers of languages and their department heads must leave, at least momentarily, their ivory tower and make their services available where they are needed. As one prominent educator and publisher, Val Hempel, has said, "Unless language teaching is able to build career education into its rationale and practice I see little hope that foreign language shall ever become a central part of either the school or college curricula" (Hempel correspondence).

Achieving Language Proficiency

It is becoming vitally imperative that we discover the means of increasing the basic speaking and understanding proficiency of language students at all levels of study. Government and business employers using foreign language students, in too many cases have found them lacking in the ability to speak well enough to handle day-to-day operations without a great deal more instruction than they are able to receive in the schools and colleges. That evasive

S-3 rating, which in government circles indicates the ability to carry out one's daily assignments at work in the language, can only be brought more nearly within our grasp through greater motivation, more relevant curricula, and more effective utilization of the time given for training. More contact hours with the language are called for. This goal might be reached through intensive full-time courses, language camp activities, travel abroad, and the provision near colleges and schools of dormitory facilities where only the target language is spoken.

The real innovation must come in connection with the curriculum. It may be advisable to separate the language and the literature degrees in colleges. These fields obviously have very different goals. Reading Don Quixote in the original is a goal fitting for one who will teach literature or widen his literary understanding. For one who aspires to use the spoken language as an adjunct career skill, increased time must be available to develop the desired level of proficiency. The student may have to make a decision between the two, but there should be a track provided for those who choose to use language as a tool in a career.

The potential at each level of instruction must be maximized. We must face the fact that after three or four semesters of a foreign language a student is not going to be able to acquire a proficiency in French adequate to allow him to work in the Paris office of a multinational corporation. It has been mentioned in prior chapters that in addition to language proficiency, the student must complete the requirements for his major, which may be in accounting, business, or some other field. Only if the schools provide a high level of training will it be possible for the college student to achieve his/her goals.

Competency-Based Foreign Language Instruction

Focus on three A's: accountability, articulation, achievement. In a recent ADFL article Jean S. Bidwell (p. 114) speaks of minimal goals for each level, which should be established on a broad basis under the direction of the state department of education. Michigan has apparently been working on this enormous task for several years. Ms. Bidwell admits that the most difficult job will still be to convince local districts and administrators that language acquisition is cumulative and that students must meet the objectives at each level before receiving credit and proceeding to the next.

Uniform Proficiency Rating Mechanisms

The matter of credit and accountability brings to mind another ingredient which is lacking in the present curriculum in schools and colleges. There is no universal standard of language proficiency rating. If an employer is interviewing several candidates for a language-related position, how does he know that any of them has the necessary language ability? When a person says he speaks German and brings a transcript with only A's, what does that mean?

Unfortunately there is no uniform method of testing language proficiency in private industry either. We must work towards the establishment of standard definitions of language proficiency preferably on the model of the Foreign Service Institute definitions, which provides for testing on a total basis of a person's ability to respond successfully and use the language in rather precise as well as general situations. This system of evaluation would bring us nearer a task-oriented type of comprehensive goals. Rather than judging on such minimal objectives as the ability to spell words or conjugate verbs correctly 80 percent of the time, proficiency should be equivalent to competency in performing a set of tasks in the target language. In spite of numerous articles advocating this approach, there are few if any schools or universities at the present time in which credit is granted on the basis of competency to perform at a prescribed proficiency level. It is well known that the Modern Language Association has made repeated efforts to establish the application of proficiency norms to foreign language institutional teaching, and we are now hearing more of this kind of encouragement from professors like Bidwell of Michigan, Randall Jones of Syracuse, and John Kronik of Cornell.

With a system of accountability and articulation students would leave high school with a competency based proficiency rating and the colleges could build on that foundation. We need also to encourage corporations to review their positions for which language proficiency is needed and determine minimum levels of proficiency for specific role assignments. Perhaps now in the face of threatened disaster in our profession we can gain sufficient support to make the curricular reforms required for the world of work. Rather than trying to find markets for our graduates as they are now trained, we must train them to meet the opportunities and demands of the modern world of technology.

Training for Cultural Empathy

The second major goal indicated by this study is the need to develop increased cultural understanding and empathy for people whose language one is studying. As in the case of the language itself, a mere awareness of components or issues is not sufficient training for the person who will represent his country and his company overseas. Cultural training should enable the person to cope with cultural shock and cultural fatigue and to keep from offending one's hosts in other countries so that the assigned task can be accomplished.

During recent years the language teaching profession has been exposed to the desirability of teaching culture as a way of life rather than Culture (with a capital C), meaning the finest achievements of a civilization to cathedrals, literature, and patronage of the fine arts. The profession having realized the importance of studying the way of life, there remains the task of concentrating on the ability of a trainee to relate favorably and show empathy for his hosts in another country or the people of other cultures within the borders of the United States. Teaching culture in this manner offers all the challenge necessary to foreign language teachers to humanize their teaching.

Kenneth B. Hoyt has very effectively drawn attention to the humanistic orientation of career education. He defines work as "a conscious effort aimed at producing benefits for oneself and/or for oneself and others." "The emphasis on producing," he explains, "refers to the human needs of all human beings to do, to accomplish, to achieve something that will allow the individual to _be_ someone." "The emphasis on 'benefits'," he continues, "illustrates the need we all have to know that somebody needs me for something -- that it does make a difference that I exist." Hoyt then quotes former President Lyndon B. Johnson as saying that to hunger for use and go unused is the greatest hunger of all. Hoyt believes that career education is dedicated to relieving all persons from that hunger. In conclusion, he states, "That is why I say it is humanistically oriented" (Delaney).

A career education orientation in foreign language instruction need not be dehumanizing. On the contrary, what could be more humanizing than possessing the ability to speak to people of other cultures in their own language and do so in such a way that we demonstrate a respect and understanding of their values, traditions, customs, beliefs, and way of life? In this role the foreign language teacher has a great contribution to make in today's business community both domestically and overseas.

Wilga Rivers (_FL Annals_, p. 22) suggests that we look beyond our traditional preoccupation with _belles lettres_ to involvement with the ways of thinking and acting of people who speak the language, with their history, their environment, their community structures, their influences beyond their own shores, and their ways of interacting politically, commercially, economically, and artistically with other people. She follows with the statement that only a few foreign language teachers are prepared professionally or emotionally to move in this direction at present.

The use of the literary heritage of a country should not be overlooked in intercultural training. In seeking models for the synthesis of a nation's characteristics, values, and beliefs, what better source is there than the prototypes found in literature? It is suggested here that there is no finer source material for the preparation of cultural empathy curricula than the literature of a country. In the utilization of literature for these purposes the goals do not include reading the text in the original, literary analysis, nor the study of literary devices and techniques used by the author. What is asked for is the development of curricular materials which enable the student to grasp the essential nature of the culture, that is, the way of life of the people whose language he or she is studying.

In addition to learning about the values and way of life of the culture in which he will work, a prospective overseas transferee needs accurate information regarding the living conditions. In order for a family to successfully adjust to a new environment, it is helpful to have practical suggestions on how to relate to the host nationals. Language House and Business Council for International Understanding (affiliated with American University, Washington, D.C.) (BCIU) both give these practical suggestions, and Gary Lloyd director of BCIU suggests that some of the most helpful cultural awareness sessions they offer deal in a practical way with the following topics:

1. Management and motivation of local nationals and government
2. Training and development of local nationals and government

3. International business/negotiations
4. Socialization in the target culture
5. Managing and maintaining a household in the target culture
6. Doing business in the specific culture

The foreign language staffs of schools and colleges would do well to investigate the type of intercultural communications training being offered by such professionals as Edward Stewart, Charles Vetter, and James Bostain, who are consultants to BCIU, Foreign Service Institute, and other government agencies in the Washington, D.C. area.

They could also learn a great deal from Alfred Kramer of the Human Resources Research Organization (HUMRRO) in Alexandria, Virginia, and from Charles Pieper of the U.S. Naval Training Base at San Diego. These specialists in intercultural training, among other fine scholars and teachers, are members of a new organization called the Society for International Education Training and Research (SIETAR), which has its headquarters at the University of Pittsburgh. David Hoopes, who, along with Michael Prosser, pioneered in this field, is currently the president of SIETAR.

In the development of intercultural communications training models, it is very difficult to find such a practical orientation and such a wealth of resource materials available through SIETAR. It is suggested that foreign language teachers on all levels have a great deal to learn from SIETAR and that a cross fertilization of ideas between the members of the professional language organizations (MLA and ACTFL) and SIETAR should be a matter of first priority.

One of the finest culture oriented programs in business which has come to the attention of this study is the one being carried out at Bechtel Corporation headquarters in San Francisco by Nessa Lowenthal. She has prepared many practical materials as well as manuals giving an introduction to living conditions in Saudi Arabia, Indonesia, Spain and other countries. Having traveled with her late husband, who was vice president of Bechtel, to most of the countries where Bechtel transferees work overseas, she has a firsthand knowledge of the kinds of information needed for successful adaptation overseas, especially by women and children. She maintains an extensive correspondence with Bechtel wives overseas in order to update and correct her material. Other large multinationals would do well to follow her example.

The Interdisciplinary Approach

The goal of the approach is to integrate language training with another discipline, which, of course, requires the development of new curricular materials. The combination of any language course with another discipline will undoubtedly fall short of the goal. Nor does it seem likely that a minor in the language will suffice. A minor in a language as conceived would not be adequate because the language courses presently are not oriented toward careers. Ideally the two courses should be taught simultaneously with the vocabulary, structure, dialogue situations, context material, and all other components of the language class being specifically related to the other discipline. In this way, the student can become proficient in demonstrating the mastery of concepts as well as the performance of tasks and application of concepts in the target language. Social workers domestically, and the international manager overseas will need an entirely different set of competencies from those now expected of a language teacher or a teacher of literature. The interdisciplinary approach in career training assumes the preparation of new textual materials and program organization in order to meet these newly defined needs. A course of the type referred to above is the Intensive Course in German for Architects. Lucy Ferrari (pp. 48-9), reporting on this approach points out that above all, this is a language course that is relevant and meaningful. The students are talking about something that is exciting to them. The subject matter of the conversation could not be more applicable. They deal with articles on architecture in periodicals and newspapers. They talk about the projects they are doing at the moment. Gradually they learn to communicate on a professional level. They cover the language material far more effectively and in a shorter time than in the traditional approach. This type of course could help satisfy the contemporary student's search for relevance and meaning in education.

Which kinds of subjects lend themselves to integration with language study? The respondents to our survey were asked this question in terms of the most adequate preparation for their overseas business needs. Recall this rank order listing (Chapter Five) of their preference by field of study:

RANK ORDER BUSINESS/INDUSTRY

- Business Administration/ Management
- Marketing and Sales
- Engineering
- Secretarial Skills
- Finance
- Accounting
- Economics
- Communications
- Clerical Skills
- Law
- Public Relations
- English Language Skills
- Advertising
- Data Processing
- Other (Miscellaneous)
- Civil Engineering
- Journalism
- Library
- Area Studies
- Statistics
- Psychology
- Cultural Studies
- Sociology
- Political Science
- Public Administration
- Fine Arts

By far the most important primary skill for employment in business is, of course, business administration or management, with marketing, sales and engineering coming next in order of preference. What is perhaps most meaningful is the large number of different fields of study that are useful overseas in an international corporation. This would seem to indicate that there is a wide range of choices one may make in choosing a career if his or her ultimate goal is to work overseas and use language as an adjunct skill.

Combining the study of a language with another subject can be very helpful, as pointed out above. Depending on the career goals of the college student of today, it may now be possible to do some very meaningful teaching of languages. According to a study conducted by the University of Illinois, Wilga Rivers (Rivers file) discovered that 45 percent of the language students she surveyed said they were preparing to work in a field where knowledge of a language would be useful, and only 9 percent of the sample were language majors.

To provide curricular materials for the integration of these disciplines into the study of the various appropriate languages presents a formidable challenge. It must be approached on the basis of priority and demand. Sharing and coordinating the task is certainly indicated to expedite the work.

Assuming accountability and competency at the high school level the student can be expected to go to college with the ability to "check out" in many of the language requirements of the first level courses. This fact suggests again the need for uniform evaluation standards so that the students can establish a level of language competency and then have more time to reach the desired level of performance.

An innovative system of challenging evaluations in this manner is now being worked out for general education and other courses on the undergraduate level at Brigham Young University (BYU) in Provo, Utah (BYU Today, p. 8). The new program of "learning rather than teaching" at BYU is based on the idea that students should be able to get college credits on the basis of demonstrated proficiency rather than classwork. Beginning in the fall of 1975 at BYU the student may readily acquire about one full year of college credit by challenging evaluations. Credit achieved in this manner will cost less and the student need stay in a class only as long as is required for him or her to become competent. Sophisticated evaluations are administered (not by the teacher) to confirm competencies and confer credit throughout the program. "This quasi 'marketplace' arrangement assures continued openness -- a process rather than a fixed program" according to Terry Warner and John Sorensen of the BYU General Education Committee.

At BCIU a survey of trainees' preferences indicated that the greater demand by those going overseas is for (1) organizational development, (2) language, (3) intercultural communication, and (4) area studies (Lloyd).

This indication of felt needs on the part of executives assigned to go overseas would appear to have direct application to the type of course combinations which should be offered in the schools and colleges.

Modular Instructional Materials

With this kind of flexibility in both the language and the career related discipline, many options will become available to the student.

With respect to curriculum, what is called for is an entirely new approach to text writing. There is already a tendency among language teachers to use teacher-prepared materials and get away from the standard textbook except for a presentation of the structure of the language. The use of modules for career education materials is seen as a viable and practical approach to curriculum development, especially at the second and third level of language learning.

There is considerable anecdotal evidence to indicate that today's college language student does not want more grammar. New mechanisms and strategies must be found to make language learning modules functional, integrating the acquisition of practical structure with natural language activities.

The modular courses must be directed towards the needs of a student in a given field. The language students of the future will insist on this kind of flexibility because they are neither fulfilling a departmental language requirement nor taking a course prescribed by the teacher. The teacher's obligation will be to help them achieve the goals they set, and the students will come to the language department for a language only if they know that it will be of use in a career.

In the opinion of Gary Lloyd, director of the BCIU program, the basic language needs of an international manager can be rather specifically outlined: he needs to be able to perform certain tasks. BCIU language courses have already been modularized. The first four modules adopt a very practical approach. They deal with getting acquainted, getting around town, and asking directions at the airport, in the taxi, etc. At BCIU, there are twenty-four additional modules on audio cassettes, which are designed for use after the manager arrives at his assigned station.

Mr. Lloyd reports that at BCIU, where they train busy executives, there is no inclination toward learner-centered courses such as the silent way and the counseling method. In the limited time available for language study, the learners apparently prefer a more structured approach.

At colleges and schools the methodology is generally much more flexible. And it is readily conceded that there is a great deal of potential merit in the above mentioned student-centered experimental programs.

Development of the LWOW Demonstration Units

Since the ultimate objectives of the Languages for the World of Work project were directed toward bringing about change in the foreign language curriculum of the schools and colleges, it was considered important from the beginning to create innovative units designed to integrate language and career training as demonstration instructional materials. The plan, as originally conceived, called for these materials to be developed only after sufficient data had been collected to indicate which languages and which careers were most appropriate in satisfying the need for second language proficiency.

Consideration was also given to the impact the materials might have on the majority of foreign language teachers in the nation.

It became apparent fairly early in the study that domestically the greatest need for second language skills is felt among English-speaking Americans rendering personal and public services to those of limited or non-English-speaking ability. The largest group of people in the non-English-speaking category are those whose home language is Spanish. In order to give adequate personal and public service to these people, many monolingual Americans need to learn Spanish. This is especially true in the case of hospital, educational, and law enforcement personnel. As typical of the jobs in this area of need we chose that of a radiologic technician who must perform his services in Spanish for many people who would not otherwise understand his/her instructions and be able to carry out satisfactorily the X-ray process. This decision was made on a hypothetical basis as a result of anecdotal information collected. It was later confirmed by the statistics as they became available. We, therefore, developed a unit to teach Spanish as a second language to students of radiologic technology.

Another felt need was identified early in the study among the large number of Spanish-speaking residents and migrants who lack sufficient ability in English to enter skills training programs or to upgrade their career and skills qualification. In some cases these people have career skills but are not employable because of a deficiency in English. We discovered that there is considerable demand for women beauticians, and we hypothesized that a job in a beauty shop would offer an excellent opportunity for Spanish-speaking women or men, if they knew sufficient English to do the assigned tasks. We therefore developed a unit to teach beauticians the English phrases and vocabulary required to carry out basic tasks such as shampooing in the beauty shop.

(Complete texts of both teaching units are included as an appendix to this report.)

In government, business, and industry abroad, the greater need for second language proficiency appeared to be that required by the International Manager, foreign service officer, or corporate representative visiting a branch office. As a representative of this group we chose an auditor visiting the Paris installation of a U.S. based corporation who needs French to do his/her work. The unit involves the special vocabulary items, the culture orientation, and the structures germane to the basic auditing control. The situational dialog deals with a simulated visit of Miss Jana Larson, Accountant of the office of Monsieur Massa, Manager of Motorola, Inc., in Paris.

Selection of Methodology and Strategies: An effort was made during the literature search to identify innovative programs of language teaching which integrated language and career training. One of the most successful was the one being piloted at Manchester Community College in Manchester, Connecticut, by Professor Toby Tamarkin. She utilizes a multimedia approach, including video tapes. The dialog situations involve the use of Spanish in performing the tasks required of employees in hospital, law enforcement, and social work.

This has been a very popular course with the students and has attracted considerable attention among language teachers and administrators who have seen it demonstrated (Lester and Tamarkin). We considered this experience extremely valuable and were successful in seeking the cooperation of Professor Tamarkin in the development of the demonstration units and in piloting the models.

Selection of a Demonstration Site: The criteria for selection of a site in which to pilot and demonstrate the effectiveness of the curriculum materials were the following:

Cooperative and informed professionals in the academic field of language and career education

Availability of media services and facilities

Availability of student subjects already involved in the type of career education addressed by the materials

Accessible facilities in close proximity to the offices of the project staff.

We were fortunate in finding at nearby Weber State College in Ogden, Utah, Dr. Oren E. Moffett, Professor of Spanish and French, who was kind enough to provide all the essential services required. He and his staff at Weber State were very cooperative and the facilities they provided were excellent. They also provided groups of cooperative students who were enthusiastic about the project and dedicated to its basic objective.

Curriculum developers were Dr. Ernest J. Wilkins and Ms. Toby Tamarkin. They wrote the dialogs, exercises, drills, and accompanying cultural notes and task assignments in English, French, and Spanish. As native language consultants they used Mr. Mario Aranda for Spanish and Mr. Claude Massa for French.

Mr. Phillip Keene and Mr. Bernard Lee from Olympus Media were in charge of direction and photography for preparation of the video tapes.

Strategies for Implementation

This new curriculum will complement studies which lead to a career or skill goal with an ability to use a second language. There are three basic reasons for using this method of language training for the world of work:

1) The natural competitive challenge to any student to have the largest market for his talents upon completion of his studies;

2) The improvement of one's commercial value in an already established profession, job, or skill; and

3) A basic training program for unskilled workers which couples skill learning with a practical language acquisition.

MATERIALS: GENERAL STRUCTURE

Basically, all materials are modular and were designed to help the student to master specific tasks required in a particular career and at the same time to provide him with the language competency necessary to successfully carry out those tasks. For this reason the materials use a multimedia approach. The method of surrounding the learner with a barrage of sight and sound stimuli enables him to simulate a specific work role more easily than the traditional method of lifting information from a printed page.

A learner may begin at what is considered the entry level of a profession and move into the more complex levels of that job or switch into a totally different career area. For example, if a learner begins with the unit on "shampoo person" which is the entry level of a career in beauty services, he can progress through manicurist, facial treatments, and with the necessary education and language units, become a licensed cosmetologist. On the other hand, he may decide while studying the entry level unit that the beauty business is not a good choice for his needs or interests. At that point he can begin with the entry unit in another field -- retail sales, accounting, law enforcement, auto mechanics, etc.

The materials are task oriented in nature so that the learner performs various physical skills while becoming familiar with technical vocabulary and grammatical structures. In highly skilled professions the use of actual instruments employed on the job and completion of any documentation that is necessary to the specific career are part of the unit.

Because the materials are adaptable to either classroom or the self-study concept, the program can be described as open entry. When used individually, a learner may begin at any time and complete the units as quickly or unhurriedly as he deems necessary for his own understanding and mastery of the career being studied.

MATERIALS: COMPONENTS

Televised Dialog. The basic job procedure has been written into a short (3-5 minute) dialog and recorded on television tape. Native speakers play the roles so that the language model is accurate and authentic. By using this taped dialog, the learner can see the task being performed as he hears the oral phrases that pertain to the task. Television was chosen as the medium because today's audience (our learners) are attuned to it as entertainment and it holds their attention. Other advantages are that television is quicker than film to set up for use either in a classroom or individually by the student and one can replay the entire dialog or any portion of the dialog as often as is necessary using a simple rewind lever. Lights need not be dimmed nor are shades or curtains necessary over the windows in order to see the dialog.

Overhead Transparency. The dialog has been printed in large type on an overhead transparency to be used by the teacher in a special manner which will allow learners to respond correctly to questions based on the job procedure being studied. The transparency becomes an aid for the learner who is unsure of the new vocabulary and his communicative process in the second language. His repeated success in answering questions based on the dialog through utilization of the overhead transparency enables him to build confidence in his own language ability and gives him the important practice he needs in forming grammatical structures and employing technical phrases.

Slide Presentation. A series of slides were prepared to emphasize the specific tasks carried out in the job procedure. Each pictorial image is designed to evoke a specific language response from the learner and reinforce the information presented in the television tape.

Audio Cassette. The student works individually with the taped exercises and has a chance to perfect his pronunciation of the dialog by playing this cassette. There is a narrative portion which gives the learner a chance to hear the language symbols of the work tasks in a manner different from the televised tape and to which he responds to multiple-choice questions. A learner may practice with this tape at home, in his car, or wherever and whenever he finds it most convenient.

Learner's Workbook. This written tool designed for the learner includes:

a) a general description of the career to be studied;

b) a series of performance objectives which outline for the learner what he will be able to accomplish (the tasks he can perform) at the end of the unit;

c) a list of that vocabulary necessary to convey information while performing the tasks;

d) an explanation of grammatical structures to be used in the target language and exercises designed to help the learner practice these structures and the new vocabulary;

e) a very short supplementary dialog which brings in additional information useful in the job procedure in the target language; and

f) information on the cultural implications that are involved in dealing with the target culture (i.e. behavioral patterns or beliefs which may differ from our own).

METHODOLOGY (Learning Progression)

Day 1:

a) The learner reads the job description and the list of performance objectives so he has a very basic understanding of the tasks involved in the career to be studied and realizes what will be expected of him.

b) The learner and teacher go over the vocabulary list together, repeating the words in the target language.

c) The learner watches the televised dialog. The first time through he cannot be expected to understand every spoken word or even a good percentage of the language presented. He will, however, be able to follow what is going on as he watches the tasks being performed.

d) Using the overhead transparency of the dialog as an aid in matching language symbols to tasks performed, the teacher asks a series of simple (one to three word response) questions and points to the answer on the transparency. The learner provides the correct answer by reading it from the transparency after hearing the question that evokes the specific response. He cannot fail. This method helps him decipher the new code of a second language.

e) The learner sees the televised dialog a second time and is able to identify much more of the spoken language as he watches the job procedure.

f) Once again the teacher goes over the transparency with the learner, asking questions about each portion of the dialog and pointing to the answers on the transparency. The questions may involve a complete phrase or short sentence for the correct answer.

g) The learner is next shown the slide series and asked questions relating to the pictorial image of the tasks being performed. The questions are answerable in short phrases. The teacher goes through the slides a second time and makes a complete statement in the target language which the learner repeats for practice. A third time through the slides the learner makes statements about each image.

h) The learner is told to practice with the audio cassette and do the exercises in the workbook before the next lesson.

Day 2:

a) The teacher goes over the workbook exercises with the learner and answers any questions pertaining to either grammatical structures or vocabulary usage.

b) The learner views for a third time the televised dialog.

c) As the teacher makes questions from the overhead transparency of the dialog, he begins to personalize the questions to get the learner to see how he originally came in contact with the particular job being studied as well as other implications of the job procedure that have not been presented in the dialog.

d) The learner views the televised dialog a fourth time.

e) The learner together with the teacher prepares a synthesis of the dialog. Concentrating on the tasks to be performed, the learner decides on a verbal cue that will remind him of the task and the language necessary to convey information about that task to the client or patient being dealt with. The series of short clues becomes a synthesis of the dialog. The learners never have a copy of the dialog except for the overhead transparency which is worked with for short periods of time (5-8 minute intervals) as the intent is not to have the learner memorize the dialog, but rather to learn the tasks involved and the vocabulary which represents those tasks.

f) The learner picks a partner with whom he is going to simulate the role he has been studying. Using the synthesis to remind him of the steps involved in the job procedure and any instructions or documents necessary to complete the job procedure, the learners practice in pairs, taking turns as the employee and customer or client.

g) The learner's assignment is to continue to practice both the role simulation and with the audio cassette.

Day 3:

a) The learners work in pairs to perfect the job procedure and be able to complete the performance objectives for the unit. They call upon the teacher for any questions regarding either the tasks involved or the language accompanying those tasks.

b) When they are ready (end of third day or much longer), the learners present the role simulation to the teacher. As soon as they have successfully mastered the language skills necessary and the job procedure, they begin the next unit.

Summary

The previous units merely serve as examples of literally hundreds of possibilities to redirect language training to relevant occupational training. The task of deciding priorities is an immense one and suggests a formal national needs assessment which was not an intended outcome of this study.

Nevertheless, external evidence based on common sense, on what is happening today, and on some of the findings reported earlier in this study suggest strongly that at least the following needs are apparent and could be met by specialized curriculum devised through interdepartmental cooperation at the college and public school levels:

1. Courses of instruction could be developed for the many monolingual teachers and prospective teachers of the thousands of school children who qualify for bilingual instruction, but yet do not have native instructors. Shortages and needs in this area include courses in Spanish, American Indian dialects, Portuguese, Chinese, Tagalog, and many others. Local ethnic concentrations dictate the most pressing needs.

2. Beginning and intermediate level courses could be restructured so that the ratio of graduates would be vastly improved, who attempt to enter foreign service (government), who would place at the S-3 level or better. (Recall that many graduates place at S-1, most at S-2 and that the minimal requirement for most foreign service positions is S-3).

3. Based on the perceived need reported earlier of personnel with combinations of a language and business-related training, language departments and colleges of business, could well afford to make a serious cooperative effort to turn out the kind of product (graduate) that prospective employers are reporting to be in short supply, one with full technical as well as language qualifications.

4. Courses of instruction, particularly through community colleges, could be directed toward increased communicability between community leaders and citizens in general, and the minority groups who do not speak English. Welfare services, medical attention, job training and counseling, and a host of other services could be vastly improved if efforts were made to at least meet our non-English-speaking fellow citizens halfway in areas where the population mix makes such programs feasible. Programs patterned after the Apollo-Soyuz model might be appropriate with both

native English speakers and non-English speakers enrolled in training supplemented by practice in being assigned friend to friend, with the English speaker speaking only Spanish, for example, and the Spanish speaker speaking only English to each other.

5. Greater effort could be made to individualize instruction by providing basic conversational and social language needs in a core program, but with the flexibility for persons of diverse needs and interests to pursue an appropriate strand of specialized instruction related, for example, to medicine, dentistry, salesmanship, agricultural labor supervision, law enforcement, social work, international business, and so on.

These are only five very general ideas that suggest the vast areas as yet untouched in curriculum development for languages and the world of work. It is hoped that if nothing else this study and the curriculum samples shown in this chapter will catalyze activity throughout the academic system, help to re-vitalize the language profession, and at the same time contribute to a pressing societal need.

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APPENDIX

Languages for the World of Work

Demonstration Teaching Units

EL CHAMPÚ

LANGUAGES FOR THE WORLD OF WORK

A CURRICULUM DEMONSTRATION

OLYMPUS RESEARCH CORPORATION

Toby Tamarkin
Ernest J. Wilkins

Introducción

Estos materiales se han preparado para ayudar a una persona de limitada habilidad en inglés a capacitarse no sólo en un oficio sino también en el uso del inglés para poder tener éxito en su búsqueda de un buen empleo remunerativo y satisfactorio. Se han escrito para el uso de los que tienen ya algún conocimiento del inglés como resultado o de haber seguido un curso elementario o de haber tenido experiencia práctice con el idioma. Esta unidad combina el idioma y el entrenamiento del oficio en una forma integrada que permite que los participantes se capiciten simultaneamente en ambos aspectos del trabajo. Se entiende que el objetivo principal del entrenamiento es el oficio. El participante tiene que llevar a cabo en una forma satisfactoria todas las tareas técnicas. Sin embargo, puesto que la habilidad apropriada en el idioma es también un requisito, un alto nivel de eficacia se requiere en ambos el idioma y el oficio.

Objetivos de esta lección

Cuando haya completado esta unidad podrá demostrar su habilidad de conversar en inglés lo suficiente bien para que le entienda un americano nativo de habla inglesa en las siguientes actividades:

1. Llevar a cabo de una manera satisfactoria el servicio de lavarle la cabeza a otra persona de acuerdo con el orden y secuencia de los pasos incluidos en el proceso diciéndole a la vez al cliente lo que está haciendo.

2. Demostrar la comprensión de todas las palabras y frases presentadas en el diálogo haciendo y contestando a preguntas y respondiendo a instrucciones.

3. Dar oralmente todas instrucciones requeridas para cada paso del proceso del lavado de la cabeza usando los ademanes apropriados.

JOB DESCRIPTION

Shampoo Person - In the Beauty Salon

In some states this position in a beauty salon is available to licensed personnel only.

This job is a five-day week, forty hours per week and pays the minimum wage or slightly above, plus tips.

Work conditions are usually excellent as most salons are air-conditioned and provide nice settings and even stereo music for their clients and personnel.

The work procedures involve shampooing of the hair, application of temporary rinses and hair coloring, application of neutralizers in permanents and application of hair treatments such as cream rinses and conditioners. This person is essentially an assistant to the beautician and hands to the beautician such implements as clips, rollers, combs, razors, scissors, etc. This person is responsible for the cleanliness of the shampoo unit and must make sure there is ample shampoo, towels, and other necessary items.

This job is the initial step towards a profession in hair dressing. Schooling is available on a part-time basis in the evenings as well as a full-time program. Schooling usually involves one year full-time or 2000 hours (in Connecticut) which constitutes two years for students who attend at night. The cost is about $1000 for the entire program. A student is a "beginner" for the first two months of training, an "intermediate" for the second two months of training, and a "senior" for the last eight months of training. The student must pass a written and practical exam to become licensed in each state.

The shampoo person which is an entry level in this field has a high demand for workers due to heavy turnover and good availability because of numerous salons.

DESCRIPCION DEL TRABAJO

En El Salón De Belleza - La encargada del lavado de cabeza.

En algunos estados las personas dedicadas a este trabajo, tienen la categoría de licenciadas.

Habitualmente este trabajo es de cinco días a la semana (cuarenta horas) y se paga un sueldo mínimo (o poco más), además de las propinas.

Las condiciones de trabajo casi siempre son excelentes, los salones son elegantes, aire acondicionado y hasta se provee música estereofónica para los clientes y personal.

El trabajo mismo incluye el lavado de cabeza, enjuagues, aplicación del tinte, neutralizador durante las permanentes y tratamientos especiales como aplicación de cremas y acondicionadores. Este personal es esencialmente ayudante del peluquero y le pasa los instrumentos de trabajo, como tubos, peines, tijeras, etc. También es responsable de la limpieza del equipo del champú y debe controlar las provisiones de champú, toallas y otras cosas necesarias.

Este trabajo es el primer paso hacia la profesión de peluquero. Es posible asistir a una escuela de belleza a horario parcial o completo. Generalmente un estudiante tiene un curso de un año o sea de 2000 horas (en Connecticut) que constituye dos años si estudia en clases nocturnas. El estudiante se llama principiante durante los dos primeros meses, intermedio durante los siguientes dos meses, y avanzado durante los últimos ocho meses del aprendizaje. Para recibir la licencia, es necesario pasar un examen práctico y uno escrito.

El empleado del champú que representa un nivel elemental en este campo de empleos está muy solicitado, puesto que hay muchos salones de belleza y un cambio regular de personal.

VOCABULARIO

aplicar	to apply
aretes	earrings
capa	cape
cepillo	brush
cliente	client/customer
cómodo	comfortable
champú -- para caspa	shampoo -- dandruff
el salón de belleza	beauty salon
enjuague de crema	cream rinse
espejo	mirror
la encargada del lavado de cabeza	shampoo person
laca	spray
lavar	to wash
secadora manual	hand blower
toalla	towel

SHAMPOOING THE HAIR

Luz Rivera - Shampoo Person
Mrs. Green - Client

Luz: Mrs. Green, step this way please. Have a seat here. Thank you.

Luz: Will you remove your earrings please. Thank you.

Luz: This cape will prevent you from getting wet.

Mrs. Green: Thank you.

Luz: Please lie back. Thank you. Are you comfortable?

Mrs. Green: Yes, thank you.

Luz: What type of shampoo do you prefer?

Mrs. Green: Dandruff shampoo.

Luz: I will make sure the water is at a comfortable temperature.

Mrs. Green: That's fine. Thank you.

Luz: Do you use a cream rinse?

Mrs. Green: Oh yes, please.

Luz: I will shampoo your hair now then take you to the hairdresser.

Mrs. Green: That will be fine, thank you.

EL LAVADO DE CABEZA

Luz Rivera - La encargada del lavado de cabeza

Sra. Green - La cliente

Luz: Señora Green, pase por aquí por favor. Siéntese aquí.

Luz: Por favor, quítese los aretes. Gracias.

Luz: Con esta capa no se mojará.

Sra. Green: Gracias.

Luz: Reclínese. Gracias. ¿Está cómoda?

Sra. Green: Sí, gracias.

Luz: ¿Qué tipo de champú prefiere usted?

Sra. Green: Un champú contra la caspa.

Luz: Voy a asegurarme que el agua esté a una temperatura cómoda.

Sra. Green: Está bien, gracias.

Luz: ¿Usa usted un enjuague de crema?

Sra. Green: Ah sí, por favor.

Luz: Le lavaré la cabeza ahora y luego la llevaré a la peluquera.

Sra. Green: Está bien, gracias.

Preguntas sobre el diálogo

1. Who is the client?
2. Who is the shampoo person?
3. Does Mrs. Green have earrings?
4. What is the cape for?
5. Why does Mrs. Green lie back?
6. What type of shampoo does she prefer?
7. What does Luz say about the water?
8. Does Mrs. Green use cream rinse?
9. What will Luz do?
10. Where will Luz take Mrs. Green?

Diálogo Dirigido

1. Teacher: Dígale a la Señora Green que se siente, por favor.

   Student: Please sit down Mrs. Green.

   ---que se quite los aretes, por favor.

   ---que se recline, por favor.

   ---que pase por aquí, por favor.

2. Teacher: Pregúntele a la Señora Green, cómo está.

   Student: How are you Mrs. Green?

   ---si está comoda

   ---qué clase de champú emplea.

   ---si el agua está bien.

El Presente del Progresivo

I work	Trabajo
I am working	Estoy trabajando

El equivalente en inglés del presente del progresivo se forma agregando ing al verbo si el verbo termina en una consonante

---ing = ando
iendo

to comb = combing I am combing

Si el verbo termina en una vocal, se quita la vocal y se agrega ing.

to take = taking I am taking.

to remove = removing I am removing.

Si la acción está en progreso se debe usar la forma progresiva en inglés. "I work" significa "yo trabajo" pero si está en proceso siempre se usa la forma progresiva en inglés. "I am working."

Note la forma en inglés del verbo irregular en español:

Voy a lavarle la cabeza

I am going to wash your hair.

Diálogo Dirigido

1. Teacher: Have Mrs. Green step this way.

Student: Please step this way Mrs. Green.

---have a seat here

---take off her earrings

---lie back

---go with you to the hairdresser

2. Teacher: Ask Mrs. Green how she is.

Student: How are you Mrs. Green?

---if she is comfortable

---what kind of shampoo she prefers

---if the water is all right

---if she uses a cream rinse

3. Teacher: Tell Mrs. Green you are going to wash her hair now.

Student: I am going to wash your hair now.

---put the cape on her now

---spray her hair

---apply the shampoo

---apply the rinse

---give her a towel

---take her to the hairdresser

Patterned Response

1. Teacher: Will you spray her hair?

Student: I'm spraying it now.

Will you brush her hair?

Will you comb her hair?

Will you take her to the hairdresser?

Will you rinse her hair?

Will you give her a towel?

Will you shampoo her hair?

Will you wash her hair?

2. Teacher: What are you going to do with the brush?

Student: I am going to brush your hair now.

--Comb?

--Shampoo?

--Rinse?

--Water? (Spray your hair)

--Cape? (Put the cape on you)

--Towel? (Put the towel on your head)

--Hand Blower? (Dry your hair)

3. Teacher: Will you put the cape on me?

Student: Yes, I'm going to put the cape on you now.

Will you shampoo my hair?

Will you put on the rinse?

Will you put a towel around my head?

Will you take me to the hairdresser?

Question - Answer

1. Good morning, how are you?
2. Who is Mrs. Green?
3. What is she having?
4. What is Mrs. Green removing?
5. What is preventing Mrs. Green from getting wet?
6. What type of shampoo do you prefer?
7. Do you use a cream rinse?
8. Who is Luz Rivera?
9. Who is shampooing the hair?
10. Who is sitting in front of the mirror?

VOCABULARIO SUPLEMENTARIO

Products	Productos
color rinse	enjuague de tinte
neutralizer	neutralizador
peroxide	peroxide
setting lotion	goma para el pelo
shampoo - milk	champú - de leche
oil	de aceite
regular/normal	regular
treatment	tratamiento

Implements	Utensilios
clips	pinzas
neck strip	cinta del cuello
razor	rastrillo/navaja
rollers	tubos
scissors	tijeras
sterilizer/antiseptic	esterilizador

Procedures	Procedimientos
hair coloring/hair bleaching	el tinte (pintar) de pelo
hair cut/hair shaping	el corte de pelo
hair straightening	el alisar del pelo
hair styling	un peinado
manicure	manicura
permanent wave	un permanente en frío

Tareas para las estudiantes:

1. La profesora le pedirá uno a la vez los utensilios empleados en la sección del lavado de cabeza. Al paso que se lo pida escoja el utensilio indicado y déselo a la profesora.
2. Haciendo de cuenta que la profesora es una compañera de trabajo le dará usted las instrucciones necesarias para llevar a cabo el lavado de cabeza.
3. Haciendo de cuenta que su compañera de clase es la cliente en el salón de belleza le lavará la cabeza en una manera aceptable explicándole en inglés lo que está haciendo en cada paso del proceso.

NOTAS CULTURALES -- SALON DE BELLEZA

La cultura norteamericana pone mucho énfasis en la juventud y la belleza y por eso el salón de belleza es un negocio importante en los Estados Unidos. Los servicios que se ofrecen a las clientes incluyen masajes, tratamientos del cutis, aplicaciones de lociones especiales y maquillaje a la cara así como la venta de productos cosméticos, perfumes, y hasta ropa feminina de última moda. La mujer no va al salón de belleza sólo para que le corten y le arreglen el pelo. Lo que más les atrae a las damas norteamericanas son los peinados de última hora y las nuevas maneras de emplear el maquillaje para dar una impresión más juvenil.

Un porcentaje considerable de las mujeres de las clases media y alta frecuenta una vez a la semana el salón de belleza para aprovecharse de los múltiples servicios ofrecidos. De costumbre tienen una cita fija a la misma hora todas las semanas y no tienen que llamar de antemano a menos que es necesario cancelar la cita o cambiar la hora. La mujer se da cuenta que la cita dura al menos dos horas y que si le hace falta un tinte de cabello puede pasar de cuatro a cinco horas allí.

La mjufer quiere estar tranquila mientras esté en el salón de belleza. Está acostumbrada a un ambiente elegante con alfombras, aire acondicionado, y música estereofónica. También espera que el personal -- sobre todo el peluquero (a) la mime y que la trate de un modo especial. Ella anticipa ciertos servicios que le ofrecen tal como una taza de café o té y revistas populares de modas.

La mujer norteamericana tiene la costumbre de hablar de los diferentes aspectos de su vida con el personal. Puede hablar de su calendario social, su carrera, su familiar y de los problemas personales que la encaren. Es interesante que esta relación íntima no existe sino dentro del salón de belleza. El personal entiende que no participan en la vida social de las clientes no obstante la forma íntima de tratar los asuntos personales en el salón.

LA RADIOGRAFIA

LANGUAGES FOR THE WORLD OF WORK

A CURRICULUM DEMONSTRATION

OLYMPUS RESEARCH CORPORATION

Toby Tamarkin
Ernest J. Wilkins

Introduction

These materials are designed to enable a person of limited Spanish speaking ability to gain the essential competency in a skill and in the use of Spanish to be successful in his/her pursuit of gainful and satisfying employment. They are intended for use by those who have some Spanish speaking ability gained either in an elementary level course or through practical speaking experience with the language.

This unit integrates the language and the skill training in a package which allows the participant to acquire competence in both aspects of the job simultaneously.

It is understood that the principal learning objective is the skill. The participant must be able to perform satisfactorily all of the technical assignments. However, since the appropriate language ability is also a requirement, a high degree of competency is required in both the language and the skill.

The instructional media used in this unit include:

1. A video tape presentation of the total procedure.
2. Audio cassettes containing:
    - the dialogue
    - a narration with multiple choice questions
3. Work book exercises

DESCRIPCION DEL TRABAJO

El radiólogo trabaja en laboratorio de radiografías en un hospital o clínica. Este oficio requiere un diploma de la escuela secundaria y uno tiene que cumplir con éxito un programa de 24 meses en radiología. El nivel del sueldo es aproximadamente de $7,000 al año. Los beneficios médicos como para los otros empleados del hospital son excelentes e incluyen tratamiento médico y hospitalización. Las oportunidades para emplearse son especialmente buenas y esto continuará así durante la próxima década o más. Sin embargo uno debe precaverse de los posibles peligros de la radiación.

El radiólogo trabaja con el público y emplea maquinaria complicada y costosa. Tiene que valerse de un roce y un tacto delicados con los pacientes.

El ver que los niños tomen la posición correcta a veces requiere un esfuerzo extraordinariamente ingenioso. Ya que muchos pacientes pueden estar enfermos o incapacitados uno debe tratarlos con una compasiva comprensión. Hoy día los médicos dependen de tal manera de la radiografía para su diagnóstico que los técnicos del laboratorio muchas veces están en constante movimiento acudiendo a solicitudes que deben cumplirse inmediatamente. En casos de emergencia en que el médico tiene que ver una radiografía antes de comenzar el tratamiento tienen que revelar las placas rápidamente.

Un diagnóstico rutinario de los órganos internos del cuerpo que el médico quizás desee efectuar requiere la preparación y aplicación de combinaciones químicas como de sales de bario que el paciente ingiere para que los órganos internos se vean con claridad en la radiografía. El revelado de las placas y la preparación de las mismas para el escrutiño del médico exige una esmerada atención al detalle.

Todas las placas que se sacan se guardan en el archivo cuando no están en uso, de modo que hay que saber mantener archivos.

Un radiólogo puede llegar a ser jefe del departamento en el hospital en cuyo caso tendría la responsibilidad de solicitar abastecimiento en la sección de radiología. El/ella administra y da asistencia a los otros radiólogos y se encarga completamente de departamento de radiografías en caso de no estar presente su jefe inmediato que es un médico de la administración del hospital. Hay varias maneras de recibir entrenamiento en este ramo pero la mayor parte de las escuelas aprobadas por la AMA tienen afiliación con un hospital de adiestramiento.

JOB DESCRIPTION

The Radiologic Technologist works in the X-ray laboratory of a hospital or clinic. This position requires a high school diploma and the successful completion of a 24 month X-ray technology program. Salary range is approximately $7,000 or more per year. The fringe benefits as for other hospital personnel are excellent, including physicians care and hospitalization. Employment opportunities are exceptionally good and will continue this way for the next decade or longer. Care must be taken, however, to protect oneself from potential hazards of radiation.

The radiologic technologist works with people and uses expensive complicated equipment. He must be tactful and use a generous amount of tender loving care with all patients. Getting children in the right position occasionally requires extra effort and cleverness. Since many patients are ill or disabled, they must be given sympathy and an especially understanding ear.

With todays heavy dependence on X-ray film for diagnosis the laboratory technicians in a large hospital may be on the move constantly fulfilling requests which must be done immediately. For emergency cases in which the physician must see an X-ray before beginning treatment the films must be developed quickly.

A routine diagnosis of internal parts of the body which the doctor may wish to examine requires preparing and administering chemical mixtures such as barium salts which the patient swallows in order to make the internal organs show up clearly on the X-ray film. Developing the radiographs, (X-ray film) and preparing them for the radiologists viewing demands special attention to detail.

All films taken are kept on file when not in use so there is record keeping to be done too.

A radio technologist may be promoted to department head in the hospital in which case he/she would be responsible for ordering supplies needed for the radiology unit. He/she manages and gives assistance to other technicians and takes full charge of the X-ray department in the absence of the immediate supervisor who is a staff physician.

There are several ways to receive training in this field, but most of the approved AMA schools are affiliated with a teaching hospital.

Performance Objectives:

When you have successfully completed this unit of instruction you will be able to perform the following tasks using Spanish as a means of communication with a sufficiently accurate pronunciation to be understood by a native speaker of the language.

1. Welcome the patient and make him/her feel at ease.
2. Ask and answer questions regarding the general health and the present condition of the patient.
3. Show empathy and concern.
4. Give instructions orally and follow the proper procedure for the various steps in the process of taking an X-ray of a patient's chest.

VOCABULARY

el brazo	arm
el cabello	hair
el cuello	neck
el examen	exam
el laboratorio	laboratory
el médico	doctor
el ojo	eye
el pecho	chest
el pie	foot
el radiólogo	radiologic technologist
el técnico	technician
examen de médico	medical exam
doler	to pain
la boca	mouth
la cabeza	head
la cintura	waist
la mano	hand
la medalla	medallion
la nariz	nose
la pierna	leg
la placa	plate
la radiografía	X-ray
la sala de espera	waiting rooms
revelar la placa	to develop the film
respirar	to breath

Polite Requests

Notice in the dialog the various ways of showing politeness and deference.

Tenga la bondad de quitarse la medalla.

¿Me hace el favor de pasar?

¿Quiere Ud. pasar?

Note that the above all use an infinitive (ar, - er, -ir) form of the verb after the equivalent of please. Por favor (please) may precede or follow the polite command form to soften the request.

Siga Ud. las instrucciones, por favor.

Por favor, póngase las manos en la cintura.

Patterned Response:

Teacher: ¿Puedo pasar? (May I come in?)

Student: Sí, pase, por favor. (Yes, come in please.)

Sí, tenga la bondad de pasar.

¿Puedo sentarme? (May I sit down?)

¿Puedo quitarme la medalla?

¿Puedo respirar normalmente?

¿Puedo poner las manos aquí?

¿Puedo pasar a la sala de espera?

WHAT A SHAME. I'M REALLY SORRY.

Silver: Good morning. How can I help you?

Muñoz: Good morning. The doctor wants a chest X-ray.

Silver: Come this way please.

Muñoz: Thank you very much. (you are) very kind.

Silver: Wait here. Do you feel well?

Muñoz: Not very well. It hurts a lot.

Silver: Where does it hurt?

Muñoz: Here in my chest and my arm.

Silver: What a shame. I am very sorry. Sit down if you wish.

Muñoz: Well, okay.

Silver: Don't be nervous. Do you want a glass of water?

Muñoz: I'm all right now. Don't bother.

Patterned Response

Teacher: ¿Le duele la cabeza?

Student: (Placing both hands on his head)

¡Ay, cómo me duele la cabeza!

¿Le duele el pie.

¿__________________ la mano?

¿__________________ la cintura?

¿__________________ el pecho?

¿__________________ la pierna?

Directed Dialog

A. Tell the patient to:

1. Wait here please.
2. Come in please.
3. Don't move please.
4. Breath deeply.
5. Hold your breath.
6. Breath normally.

B. Ask the patient:

1. How he is.
2. Where it hurts.
3. If his leg hurts.
4. If his hand hurts.
5. If his arm hurts.

C. Tell the patient that:

1. This will not hurt at all.
2. You are the lab technician.
3. The exam will only last 10 minutes.
4. The doctor needs an X-ray.
5. I am going to develop the plate.

Personalized Questions

1. ¿Cómo está?
2. ¿No se siente bien?
3. ¿Le duele? ¿Dónde?
4. ¿Quiere un vaso de agua?
5. ¿Es Ud. radiólogo?
6. ¿Qué nesecita el médico?
7. ¿Cuánto dura el examen?
8. ¿Va a doler mucho?
9. ¿Dónde tengo que pegar la espalda?
10. ¿Dónde tengo que poner las manos?
11. ¿Qué tengo que seguir?
12. ¿Cómo debo respirar?
13. ¿Puedo respirar ahora?
14. ¿Por qué va a revelar la placa?
15. ¿Adónde puedo pasar?
16. ¿Puedo sentarme?

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USEFUL EXPRESSIONS

Póngase de pie	Stand up
Reclínese en el lado derecho	Lie on your right side
Reclínese en el lado izquierdo	Lie on your left side
Reclínese de estómago	Lie on your stomach
Reclínese de espalda	Lie on your back
Dese vuelta	Turn over
Bájese	Get down
Beba Ud. esto, por favor	Please drink this
Ahora puede Ud. pasar al cuarto de baño	Now you can go into the bathroom

Task Assignments

Your classmate will take the part of the patient and you will:

1. Welcome the patient, tell him what the doctor wants and make him/her feel at ease in the X-ray room.
2. Find out all you can about the general health of the patient, if he/she is in pain, where it hurts.
3. Show empathy for the patient. Express your regret that he is not well and assure him that the exam will not hurt, will not take long.
4. Perform the tasks required to take a chest X-ray using the necessary equipment and giving the proper instructions for the various steps in the process.

Folk Medicine

Depending on the socioeconomic level of the Spanish speaking patients who come to the hospital there may be on their part a greater or lesser degree of resistance to medical treatment. In a large hospital which has complicated equipment and deals in highly specialized treatments based on advanced technological theories, the patient may be especially apprehensive. In addition to the cautions expressed in the job description regarding the necessity of dealing with X-ray patients in a very gentle and understanding manner, it would be well to keep in mind that some Spanish speaking people may still have very traditional attitudes toward modern medicine. They may rely in daily practice on folk medicine which for them "has worked for centuries" and therefore they have confidence in it. Modern medicine and especially anglo doctors may be viewed with some distrust. In rural communities among people of lower socioeconomic level the dispenser of folk remedies is often a "curandero," a person who enjoys great status and trust in the community. There are curanderos (men) and curanderas (women) who may be summoned to one's home to cure the common illnesses or even the less common ones. They may also serve as confidants recommending solutions for a rejected lover or preparing a potion for a would-be suitor or even casting a hex on an enemy.

Olympus Research Corporation

SALT LAKE CITY
WASHINGTON
SAN FRANCISCO
BOSTON

WHICH LANGUAGES DOES THE COUNTRY REALLY NEED?

With the attached questionnaire we are seeking background information to answer this vital question. As a nation we have never been more keenly aware of the need for more effective communications with non-English speakers at home and abroad. This questionnaire is part of a study designed to ascertain the foreign language needs of business, industry and government. We hope that we can count on your generosity in providing this information. Could we ask that it be filled out by the person in your organization who can best provide information on your needs in the foreign language area.

This project is being carried out by the Olympus Research Corporation for the State of Wyoming under a federal grant.

The information you provide us will be statistically combined with other responses to protect the anonymity of your answers. The results of this study will be given only in terms of aggregate current and projected future needs for foreign language proficiency. Schools and colleges across the nation will receive these data for their use in revising their curricula to more adequately satisfy your foreign language needs in today's changing world.

We thank you in advance for your cooperation in this important project. A self-addressed, postage paid envelope is enclosed for your use in returning the questionnaire. Please return the questionnaire even though you may feel that this study does not apply to your organization.

Sincerely,

Ernest J Wilkins

Ernest J. Wilkins
Project Director
Languages for the World of Work

ONE OLYMPUS PLAZA ☐ 1670 EAST THIRTEENTH SOUTH ☐ SALT LAKE CITY, UTAH 84105 ☐ (801) 583-5300

State of Wyoming
Olympus Research Corporation

Survey of Need for Second Language Skills in Business, Industry and Government

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Name of Organization: ______________________________

Address: ______________________________

Name and title of person supplying this information: ______________________________

____

1. Please indicate the total number of employees in your organization ____________

2. Please indicate the approximate number of U.S. citizens you employ for whom skill in a second language is:

   a) required as a primary tool ____________ (i.e., translation, interpretation, bilingual secretary, etc.)

   b) required as a secondary tool ____________ (i.e., salesmen, supervisors, consultants, etc.)

   c) not required but useful ____________ (i.e., manager, supervisor, administrator, etc.)

   d) Other, please comment ______________________________

3. Approximately how many people does your organization hire in each of the following categories of ability in a language other than English:

   a) ability to speak with native fluency ____________

   b) ability to carry on a limited conversation ____________

   c) ability to write ____________

   d) ability to read and understand ____________

   e) ability to translate ____________

   f) Other, please comment ______________________________

4. To what extent does a foreign language skill affect salary increases in your organization?

____________	____________	____________
less important than other factors	about equal with other factors	more important than other factors

---

5. Rank in order of importance from 1 to 10 (1 = the most important) the languages needed by your employees at present. Use an X to indicate a language not used.

Spanish ____________ Portuguese ____________ Italian ____________

French ____________ Japanese ____________ Arabic ____________

German ____________ Chinese ____________ Russian ____________

Indonesian ____________ Other ________________________

6. Listed below are a number of methods a company could use in meeting its needs for second language skills. Please indicate the methods most used by your company to satisfy its needs for second language skills.

Hire native speakers	Hire people with formal language training	Provide in-house training	Utilize commercial language school	Other
____________	____________	____________	____________	____________

7. In which of the following job classifications are foreign language skills useful in your organization but in short supply? Please indicate in order of scarcity from 1 to 5 (1 = most scarce).

Managerial/Administrative ____________

Supervisory ____________

Clerical/Secretarial ____________

Skilled/Semiskilled ____________

8. Which of the following fields would best combine with a college foreign language major or native speaking proficiency to improve likelihood of employment in your organization? Check all that apply:

______ international relations
______ library skills
______ public relations
______ sociology
______ psychology
______ journalism
______ accounting
______ English language skills
______ area studies
______ business administration/mgt.
______ economics
______ data processing
______ political science
______ secretarial skills
______ clerical skills
______ marketing/sales
______ communications
______ fine arts
______ engineering
______ statistics
______ civil engineering
______ public administration
______ cultural studies
______ finance
______ advertising
______ law
______ other, please list

9. Please comment freely on any future trend which you anticipate with respect to the need for foreign language skills in your organization. Also, how do you anticipate meeting these needs?